DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 351 327 SP 034 173

AUTHOR Bey, Theresa M., Ed.; Holmes, C. Thomas, Ed.
TITLE Mentoring: Contemporary Principles and Issues.
INSTITUTION Association of Teacher Educators, Reston, Va.
PUB DATE 92
NOTE 127p.
PUB TYPE Collected Works - General (020)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC06 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Beginning Teachers; Elementary Secondary Education; *Faculty Development; Higher Education; Inservice Teacher Education; Management Development; *Mentors; Program Evaluation; *Role Perception; Social Support Groups; *Teacher Education Programs
IDENTIFIERS Association of Teacher Educators; *Collaboration for Improvement of Teacher Educ; Principles Approach; *Protege Mentor Relationship; Reform Efforts

ABSTRACT

In the spirit of educational reform efforts, an initiative exists to restructure the education of teachers through collaborative action, using mentoring to build alliances. This monograph, based on contemporary principles and issues of mentoring, presents ways to conceptualize the professional preparation and development of teachers. Following a foreword, introduction, and discussion of the Principles of Mentoring recommended and adopted by the Association of Teacher Educators (Commission on the Role and Preparation of Mentor Teachers), the volume is organized into nine chapters: (1) "The Reality of Mentoring: Complexity in Its Process and Function" (Fay A. Head, Alan J. Reiman, and, Lois Thies-Sprinthall); (2) "Psychological Support for Mentors and Beginning Teachers: A Critical Dimension" (Yvonne Gold); (3) "Mentoring: A Teacher Development Activity That Avoids Formal Evaluation of the Protege" (Judith C. Neal); (4) "Mentor-Management: Emphasizing the HUMAN in Managing Human Resources" (Richard S. Kay); (5) "Guidelines for Selecting Mentors and Creating an Environment for Mentoring" (Billie J. Enz); (6) "Collaboration and Mentoring" (Reiman, Head, and Thies-Sprinthall); (7) "Evaluating Mentoring Programs" (Sandra J. Odell); (8) "Designing Training and Selecting Incentives for Mentor Programs" (Delores M. Wolfe); and (9) "Mentoring in Teacher Education: Diversifying Support for Teachers" (Theresa M. Bey). (LL)

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Contemporary Principles and Issues

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Mentoring:

Contemporary Principles and Issues

Edited by

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and
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Association of Teacher Educators
Reston, Virginia

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Printed in the United States

Text design and editing by Office of Communication and Publication, Green Street, The University of Georgia, Athens, GA 30602. Additional copies may be ordered from the OCP, G-4 Aderhold Hall, The University of Georgia, Athens, GA 30602, (404) 542-4592

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In the spirit of educational reform, there is an initiative to restructure the education of teachers through collaborative action. This initiative is advancing as teachers, school leaders, state department personnel and college educators use mentoring to build alliances. The purpose of this monograph agrees with their intent to develop human partnerships, relationships and mentorships. As a resource, it is designed to feature the contemporary principles and issues of mentoring. The content shall present the reader with ways to conceptualize the professional preparation and development of teachers.

At the heart of this publication are the principles of mentoring recommended by the ATE Commission on the Role and Preparation of Mentor Teachers. Information about our experiences leading to a final set of principles is presented in the Introduction. Then, the first of nine chapters starts with the diverse and complex realities of mentoring. Next, attention is given to the psychological development of beginning teachers, followed by Chapter 3 on teacher development activities. Chapter 4 proposes the mentor-management strategy as a way to build the self-reliance of workers within an organization structure.

The essential components and guidelines for mentoring programs are addressed in Chapter 5, and the characteristics of collaborative programs are discussed in Chapter 6. In addition, Chapter 7 suggests approaches for evaluating programs, and Chapter 8 deals with the design of training programs and incentives for mentors. In the last chapter, diverse mentoring practices are recommended to support teachers throughout their careers. Integrated throughout these chapters are the literature and the research to guide the reader's thinking and knowledge about mentoring.

This monograph reflects the aim of the Commission to help individuals develop the human potential of others. So, it is with pride that members of our Commission recommend this monograph for your reading as well as your use in the area of mentoring.

Finally, I am indebted to the authors for contributing their work and ideas to make this publication possible. Appreciation is also extended to Elaine McNiece, Cynthia Taggart, and Debra DeVaga, the ATE Communication Committee Review Team members who took time out of their busy schedules to read the draft copy before printing. The phrase "thank you" is not enough to Laura Scroggs, Leslie Lamb and Elinor Ruark at The University of Georgia, Education Materials Center, for their patience and skill in attending to both the typing and the production of this publication.

Theresa M. Bey, *Chairperson*, 1988-1993
ATE Commission on the Role and
Preparation of Mentor Teachers

Introduction

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This monograph is the product of the Association of Teacher Educators' Commission on the Role and Preparation of Mentor Teachers. The Commission was appointed in the fall of 1988 by Billy Dixon, a former President of ATE. At the first meeting in February, 1989, held at the ATE National Conference in St. Louis, Commission members discussed how the Commission could guide the selection and preparation of mentor teachers, as well as the manner in which mentors fulfill their complex roles. Commission members decided on two primary strategies—presenting pre-conference workshops at ATE National Conferences and producing publications that could be shared with the ATE membership and other interested educators.

This publication contributes to the Commission's accomplishments, which include a monograph titled *Mentoring: Developing Successful New Teachers*, published in 1990 and the sponsoring of full-day pre-conference workshops on mentoring at the ATE National Conferences in Las Vegas (1990), New Orleans (1991) and Orlando (1992).

Why Mentoring Principles?

At the 1990 ATE Annual Commission Meeting in Las Vegas, Commission members began planning this monograph. Much discussion occurred about what type of publication would be most useful to the field, and how this second monograph could contribute something uniquely different from what was provided by the Commission's first monograph.

After much discussion, Commission members determined that what was most needed was a publication that would articulate key ideas that could be used to guide the development and implementation of mentoring efforts. It was at this time that Commission members made a commitment to produce a publi-

cation to identify the fundamental principles of mentoring which would serve as the conceptual framework around which programs in various contexts could be designed. We used our best collective thinking and judgment to provide a set of principles which, if followed, would promote effective mentoring in educational settings.

How Principles Were Derived

At the conclusion of the Commission meeting in Las Vegas there were many pages of rough notes on what Commission members believed about the mentoring process. Commission members, Sandra Odell and Leslie Huling-Austin, organized the notes and corresponded with other Commission members to shape the ideas into a set of principles about mentoring. This first effort resulted in 18 key ideas with supporting statements that were sent to Commission members with the request that they add, delete or combine ideas. Then, they expanded those ideas in need of elaboration and returned their suggestions for a second round of distillation. It was the results of this step that got us over the hump in conceptualizing a set of mentoring principles.

In considering the many suggestions and revisions received from Commission members, we concluded our efforts and recommended a set of 10 mentoring principles to support the Commission's goal to address the role and preparation of mentor teachers.

When the principles were finalized (see page 4), they did represent what the Commission members believe to be the most important principles of mentoring. Furthermore, the 10 principles provide the framework for this publication, as each chapter contributes to the practice of mentoring. Once Commission members indicated their preferences for writing assignments, the creation of this monograph was underway.

In Conclusion

It is our hope that as a Commission, we have produced a useful product, one that will serve as a resource to persons who are designing mentoring programs for teachers and for those persons who wish to reflect upon and/or refine existing mentoring efforts. While one can never be certain of outcomes, two things are certain: 1. this publication represents our collective thinking about what we believe to be important principles of mentoring, and 2. the process in which we engaged to produce this publication has significantly expanded each of our own thinking about the complex phenomenon of mentoring.

Like our Commission's first monograph, this monograph was made possible by a cooperative agreement between the Association of Teacher Educators and the University of Georgia, College of Education.

Principles of Mentoring*

The Mentoring Process

1. Mentoring is a complex process and function.
2. Mentoring involves support, assistance, and guidance, but not evaluation of the protege.
3. Mentoring requires time and communication.
4. Mentoring should facilitate self-reliance in proteges.

Mentoring Programs

5. Mentoring is bigger than induction.
6. Mentoring programs should involve local school districts in collaboration with institutions of higher education, state departments of education, and teachers' bargaining groups.
7. The structure of mentoring programs should be consistent with school district goals.
8. Mentoring programs should be evaluated.

Selection and Preparation of Mentors

9. Mentors should be selected based upon identified criteria.
10. Mentors should be prepared (trained) and offered incentives for their work.

*Adopted by the Commission on the Role and Preparation of Mentor Teachers at the Annual Conference of the Association of Teacher Educators, New Orleans, February, 1991.

Chapter 1

The Reality of Mentoring: Complexity in Its Process and Function

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In the last 10 to 15 years, mentoring programs in education have abounded with many states having some type of program of support for beginning teachers (Huling-Austin, 1989). However, truly effective mentoring is more than just the perfunctory accomplishment of items on a mentor checklist. The heart and soul of mentoring is an outgrowth of belief in the value and worth of people and an attitude toward education that focuses upon passing the torch to the next generation of teachers.

Truly effective mentoring is a very complex process and function for both mentor and protege. As Huling-Austin (1990) so aptly states:

> The sooner it is recognized and accepted that both the role of the mentor and the mentoring process are highly complex, the sooner greater degrees of meaningful mentoring will take place between experienced and novice teachers in school settings across the country. (p. 50)

However, Little (1990) contends that veteran teachers rarely engage in relations that would warrant the description of mentorship. What is it that makes mentoring such a complex process and why is it not fully reaching its potential in education today? This chapter will examine this issue as it relates to the complexity

of mentoring beginning teachers, the mentoring process itself, and the function of mentoring in education.

Complexity of Mentoring

Major aspects of the complexity of mentoring in education include the multiple needs of beginning teachers and their mentors, the developmental issues each participant is facing, the mentor, the current repertoire of teaching and helping skills of the mentor, and driving or restraining factors in the school milieu.

Beginning Teacher Needs

Researchers have identified the needs of beginning teachers in settings in which no assistance has been provided (Veenman, 1984) and where beginners received assistance (Odell, 1986). Fuller's (1969) classic work categorized the progression of concerns through which student teachers and beginning teachers move during the early phases of their career development. With regard to mentoring programs, Thies-Sprinthall (1990) has characterized beginning teachers as needing:

1. Help in *developing* as competent persons, but not involvement in a program in which mentoring is used as a screening process;

2. Mentors who are on site and *skilled* as peer coaches with communication abilities and skills in conferencing, classroom observation, problem-solving, etc.;

3. Time to work with their mentor and develop new skills in long and short term planning, classroom instruction, paperwork management, work with parents, etc.;

4. Opportunities to talk with other beginning teachers in a setting free of evaluation;

5. Orientation to the school, including planning for the first day and week of school, learning the location of materials, parent conferences, curriculum overview, orientation to the community, etc.;

6. Realistic teaching assignment especially regarding the number and type of classes the beginning teacher is assigned to teach;

7. Understanding the context in which the protege is teaching (school climate, type of teaching assignment, work with at-risk students, gifted and talented students, minority students, etc.).

These needs illustrate the importance of mentors developing a repertoire of skills as well as an awareness of the context in which their protege is teaching. At the same time beginning teachers have the above needs, they are also making the transition from being a student to being the teacher and having their first full-time job. This major life change may also be compounded by their moving into a new community with all the adjustments moving can entail. Adults in this stage of their lives are dealing with issues related to their personal and professional identity as well as how close or distant they want their relationships with others to be (Erikson, 1963, 1968; Kram, 1983). Resolution of these issues will affect the proteges' future personal and career development.

Characteristics of the Helpful Mentor

For relationships in which real mentoring is occurring, true dialogue takes place between mentor and protege as they relate to one another fully in an I/Thou relationship. Development of an I/Thou relationship in mentoring is important, particularly when contrasted with an I/It instrumental relationship in which one person acts upon or manipulates another in order to produce

certain results (Buber, 1958; Gehrke, 1988). If *real* mentoring is to occur, participants must truly encounter one another (Frankl, 1969).

Encountering another person, according to Frankl (1969), involves formation of an I/Thou relationship in which both individuals relate to one another in a fully human manner as they work toward a common goal (e.g. successful induction of the protege into the teaching profession via the mentoring process). Basing their work upon Heath's (1977) concepts, Thies-Sprinthall and Sprinthall (1987) state that in order to establish this type of a strong relationship with their proteges, mentors need to have the ability to:

1. Empathize with their protege;

2. Symbolize experience by translating the art and science of teaching into forms that are comprehensible to the novice.

3. Be courageous in acting upon principles such as human dignity, equity, and justice.

4. Be autonomous and apply models of assistance according to the needs of the beginning teacher.

In addition to the characteristics cited above, Reiman (1988) adds the importance of mentors being able to assist beginners to reflect upon the issues they are facing. It's a means for both mentors and proteges to become inquiring professionals (Howey, 1988).

Developmental Complexity

The complexity of mentoring is compounded even further when one considers the different life-span developmental tasks with which both mentor and protege are grappling. Kram (1983) notes that the primary task of early adulthood is one of initiation [protege], and the primary task of middle adulthood is one of

reappraisal [mentor] (p. 608). As was mentioned earlier, proteges in early adulthood are dealing with identity and intimacy developmental tasks. They are trying to learn the ropes of the organization in which they are working while also facing issues related to their personal competence, professional effectiveness, and their ability to fulfill professional dreams as they embark upon their careers (Kram, 1983; Levinson et al., 1978). By way of contrast, mentors at midlife (mid-career) are reassessing their life's accomplishments, readjusting their visions of lifetime goals, and responding to opportunities for passing on accumulated wisdom and skill (Barnett, 1984; Erikson, 1963, 1968; Kram, 1983). Awareness of the needs of both mentors and proteges as well as the life-span developmental tasks each is facing can assist participants in dealing with the complexity of mentoring.

In a very real sense, an inadequate or nominal mentoring program which does not take into account the developmental levels of both mentor and protege may in fact be worse than no program at all. It is certainly clear that beginning teachers need careful and systematic assistance during the induction phase of their career (Berliner, 1985; Johnston and Ryan, 1983; Veenam, 1984). It is also clear that nominal assistance of the type that is usually available to novice student teachers actually achieves negative outcomes such as student teachers becoming more authoritarian, more rigid, and less pupil centered at the end of their classroom student teaching experience (Iannaccone, 1963; Zeichner, 1978, 1983). Thus, in order to have *purposeful* mentoring occur, an acceptance of the complexity involved in mentoring is the first prerequisite. Then, a commitment of resources and program planning for the mentoring process is the subsequent service requirement.

Complexity of Mentor Roles

The diverse nature of a mentor's role adds to the complexity of mentoring. Mentors find themselves functioning variously as a trusted colleague, developer, symbolizer of experience, coach/supervisor, and anthropologist for their protege.

Trusted colleague. As a *trusted colleague*, a mentor establishes a trusting, caring relationship with the mentee (Rogers, 1961). The mentoring relationship needs to be characterized by a high level of genuine, positive regard and skill on the part of the mentor, who also serves as a problem-solver for the protege (Gordon, 1974; Rogers, 1961). The aspect of being a trusted colleague is not only foundational to the building of a strong bond between mentor and protege, but it is also pervasive throughout the relationship, as confidentiality is a necessity.

Developer. Mentors are also *developers* of their proteges. Optimally, mentors encourage their mentees to reflect upon their initial teaching experiences (Reiman, 1988). They match and mismatch the proteges' current cognitive-developmental level in order to enhance growth (Hunt, 1974) and assist the mentees in becoming inquiring professionals (Thies-Sprinthall & Sprinthall, 1987). The role of the developer includes encouraging proteges to engage in self-analysis of technical, affective, and critical dimensions of teaching. In balancing support and challenge, the mentor starts where the proteges are and gradually challenges the proteges to enlarge their frames of reference.

Symbolizer of experience. The mentor also serves as a *symbolizer of experience* and advisor to the protege. Proteges may be unconsciously unskilled about an aspect of teaching and/or may not have the vocabulary needed to verbalize their experience. In these situations, the mentor can symbolize experience for the protege by translating something the mentor knows very well (teaching) to their mentee. These aspects of building a language of teaching with one's protege and helping the protege translate and interpret experiences are important skills a mentor needs to develop (Daloz, 1987; Hunt, 1974).

Coach/Supervisor. Mentors also fulfill the role of *coach and supervisor* for their protege (Joyce and Showers, 1982). In this capacity, the mentor can provide cycles of assistance for the protege within a clinical supervision model of teaching (Bey, 1990; Glickman and Bey, 1990). Coaching of proteges involves on-site classroom demonstration of teaching, practice with feedback from the mentor, and cycles of assistance. On-going prac-

tice, observation, and feedback are crucial to this mentoring role. The literature is clear that coaching takes time, and 15 to 20 repetitions may be needed before the skill becomes a permanent part of the protege's repertoire.

Anthropologist. Interestingly enough, a mentor also serves as an *anthropologist.* In this capacity, the mentor helps the beginning teacher decipher the complex culture of the educational setting in which they both work. The context in which mentoring occurs is a crucial element that has a major impact upon the success of mentoring within educational settings (Little, 1990; Reiman & Edelfelt, 1990).

Because of the complexity of mentoring, it is important that mentoring occurs in an environment that can facilitate healthy growth. Reiman and Edelfelt (1990) emphasize the importance of several conditions that can either enhance or constrain growth in mentor/protege relationships. Among these are:

a) A willingness on the part of a mentor to take the perspective of the beginning teacher and to acknowledge the current accomplishments of the novice teacher;

b) A feeling of reciprocity where both mentor and protege communicate what they have gained from the consultations, thereby reducing novice teacher feelings of indebtedness;

c) A willingness by the mentor to model reflectivity and openness to inquiry;

d) An aptitude by the mentor for symbolizing the abstractions of teaching in ways accessible to the novice teacher;

e) The courage to speak in the novice teacher's behalf when inappropriate teaching assignments are given and until contextual changes occur;

f) The capacity of the mentor to juggle a large number of tasks and responsibilities without becoming overwhelmed.

Within a mentoring relationship, there is great potential for professional renewal and psycho-social development for both mentor and protege. However, there are also pitfalls if participants are not aware of the complexity of mentoring and do not work wisely with both the process and function of mentoring.

Mentoring Process

Mentoring literature in general includes numerous references to the process involved in mentoring (Bey, 1990). This process is reflected in the various phases through which mentoring relationships develop, as well as the processes inherent within the mentoring relationship itself. Another important aspect involves application of cognitive-developmental theory to the developmental process inherent within mentoring.

Phases of Mentoring Relationships

Researchers have typically noted a progression of four to six phases through which mentoring relationships develop. Kram (1983) divides the mentoring relationship into four phases which she calls initiation, cultivation, separation, and redefinition. Hunt & Michael (1983) delineate four mentoring stages which they label initiation, protege, break up, and lasting friendship. Phillips (1977) breaks mentoring into six phases: initiation, sparkle, development, disillusionment, parting, and transformation.

No matter how one chooses to describe the phases of mentoring, healthy mentor/protege relationships involve a progression from relative protege dependence at the beginning of the relationship to autonomy and self-reliance as the protege grows into a colleague and peer. Gray and Gray (1985) in their Mentor-Protege Relationship Model portray the development of mentoring relationships as initially being characterized by strong

mentor leadership with gradual movement toward autonomy of the protege and his/her development into a colleague as opposed to the protege remaining the junior member in a subordinate/superordinate relationship. They consider it important that mentors learn to provide varied and appropriate types of help to proteges during the course of the mentoring relationship.

Cognitive-Developmental Process in Mentoring

Thus, there is general agreement at one level concerning the phases of mentoring from initiation to one of full collegiality. What is not so clear, however, is the process of instruction and supervision through which the mentor can and does provide varied and appropriate types of assistance. As noted, Gray and Gray (1985) outline the general process as proceeding from dependence to autonomy and perhaps then to mutuality. Yet what is the basis for mentor decision-making beyond the formation of a supportive I/Thou relationship? The recent works of Thies-Sprinthall and Sprinthall (1987) and Reiman (1988) have been attempts to clarify and outline exactly what configurations are necessary to provide for such systematic yet differentiated assistance. An earlier study by Thies-Sprinthall (1980) had clearly shown that some experienced teachers were not developmentally complex enough themselves to provide effective supervision/mentoring for student teachers. Not only did the research indicate that mentoring is more complex as a process than classroom instruction, but also that some experienced teachers were actually unable to objectively assess the quality of performance of the beginners.

As a result of that work, Thies-Sprinthall and Sprinthall (1987) now propose systematic mentor training based on developmental principles. An effective mentor needs to know how to vary the amount of structure and direction according to both the phase of induction and the cognitive developmental stage of the novice (Thies-Sprinthall, 1984). Following Hunt's (1974) framework, the mentor also varies the amount of support and challenge by developmental level. Thus, a novice who problem solves at a concrete level would require both substantial personal

support as well as highly detailed plans and immediate feedback on a very specific teaching behavior. Of course the opposite would be true for a novice who problem solves at higher-order levels of cognitive and interpersonal development. The ability to match the mentoring strategy to the current developmental level and then gradually mis-match in a manner of constructive dissonance represents just how complex mentoring can become if the important goals of psychological development and repertoire of teaching skills are to be achieved by the novice.

However, Levinson (1978) noted that many mentoring relationships end on a sour, bitter, or resentful note. In part, the cause of this negative outcome may be a result of failure to work appropriately with the lifespan and cognitive developmental processes inherent within mentoring as well as the various phases through which mentoring relationships progress. Failure to work with these developmental processes can result in programs that are called mentoring but are really only an empty shell devoid of the heart and soul found in true mentoring relationships (Gehrke, 1988; Little, 1990; Trang & Head, 1988). Little (1990) encourages future research agendas that look more at this heart of mentoring by focusing on comparison of mentors who receive training with those who do not, looking at mentoring as one of several policy options, testing the relative power of mentoring in favorable and unfavorable settings, and examining the context, content, and consequences of mentoring.

Function

Mentoring is a very powerful *process*, but it is also important for those involved in mentoring to consider mentoring as a complex *function* as well (Kay, 1990). The word function has been defined as a special duty or performance required of a person or thing in the course of work or action (World, 1966). Because of the major role mentors can play in their proteges' lives and the intensity of the relationship, people often fail to consider the function of mentoring as well as its process. However, other people and events in a protege's life can perform isolated mentoring functions, even though they may not actually

be involved in the more in-depth, comprehensive mentoring role. For example, faculty members who express understanding and appreciation of a beginning teacher's philosophy and professional orientation toward education serve the function of providing interpersonal support for that protege even though they may not be that beginning teacher's mentor.

Mentoring Functions

Mentoring functions are similar to the various roles mentors fulfill such as developer of talent, coach, door-opener, sponsor, protector, or confidant (Odell, 1989; Zimpher & Rieger, 1988). Descriptions of different types of mentors also serve as examples of the different functions mentors can fulfill for proteges. For example, Kram and Isabella (1985) identify peer mentors as information peers, collegial peers, and special peers. Haring-Hidore (1987) distinguishes between traditional primary mentors, which she calls grooming-mentors, and networking-mentors, that have been variously termed peer pals (Shapiro, Haseltine, & Rowe, 1978) or peers (Bolton, 1980). Huling-Austin's (1990) concept of styles of mentoring [i.e. responder, colleague, initiator] and Gray's (1989) Mentoring Style Indicator also reflect different types of mentoring.

Mentoring Mosaic

Darling (1985) distinguishes between *mentoring*, the process by which you are guided, taught, and influenced in your life's work in important ways (p. 42), and *a mentor*, the person who leads, guides and advises a person more junior in experience (p. 42). Since mentoring influences come in various forms, Darling cautions against focusing upon primary, traditional mentors to the exclusion of other mentoring strategies that can also guide one's development. In addition to the traditional mentor, who is usually older and more experienced than the protege, Darling suggests that one cultivate a network of secondary mentors, or a *mentoring mosaic*, that will provide the strength of weak ties (Darling, 1985; Granovetter, 1973). According to Darling, people who serve as secondary peer mentors can include Step-Ahead

Mentors, Co-Mentors, or Spouse Mentors. However, one's mentoring mosaic can have great variety and be comprised of a network of secondary mentors; events, situations, and circumstances of life; books one reads; or crises one faces (Darling, 1986).

When mentors and proteges apply the concept of a mentoring mosaic to the various functions primary mentors fulfill in mentees' lives, they can optimize the functions of mentoring by tapping other resources in order to fill empty spaces they may have in their mentoring mosaic. As an example, the following excerpt from a beginning teacher's journal illustrates the mentoring mosaic concept at work.

> It has been three weeks since school ended and I am still struggling with some negative attitudes toward teaching, even though my first year of teaching has been successful in so many ways. In the process of flipping through a psychology book, I accidently found some information on entry into the work force. As I read the information regarding people's entry into their careers and reconciliation of their career dreams with reality, I realized that this issue was the source of much of my current disillusionment with teaching.
>
> Now I understand my negative attitudes much better and realize that I am adjusting to the realities of my profession. Instead of being angry with myself and teaching, I realize that what I have been experiencing is part of a process I am going through as I adjust to my career. This information really helps me put things in perspective and has improved my attitude toward teaching considerably.*

Thus, at a time when this beginning teacher's mentor was unavailable, the beginning teacher was able to gain perspective upon her first year of teaching through another aspect of her mentoring mosaic.

*This entry is from the journal of the first author during her induction.

Staying alert to the function of a mentoring mosaic in one's life and seeking out experiences and events that provide mentoring opportunities can enhance the actual process involved in a relationship with a primary mentor. One of the major pitfalls in mentoring involves over-reliance upon one's mentor and failure to allow the relationship to grow and change over time. Awareness of the function of a mentoring mosaic can help prevent such undue focus and excessive dependence upon the mentor and can help foster self-reliance in the protege (Kay, 1990; Odell, 1990). Proteges can then be alert to other experiences and people in their lives that serve a mentoring function and be open to learning from them. This is one reason why encouraging mentors to serve as resource persons who refer their proteges to other people for specialized help is so important.

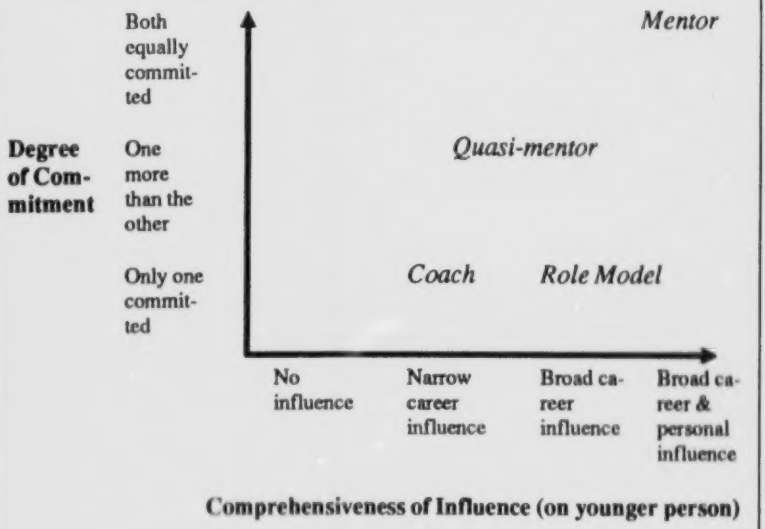
Realizing that mentoring includes *both* function and process can also help ease the adjustment whenever either mentor or protege find it difficult for the protege to become more autonomous and less dependent upon the mentor's leadership (Darling, 1985; Hunt and Michael, 1983; Levinson, 1978). If proteges have learned to be alert for other areas of their lives in which they are receiving mentoring, they are less likely to be totally dependent upon a primary mentor and better able to make appropriate shifts in roles as the relationship is redefined.

However, there is also danger in an over-emphasis on mentoring as a function. True mentoring is not a piecemeal assortment of activities or behaviors intended to assist the development of beginning teachers. In the strictest sense of the word, mentoring is found most clearly and significantly in traditional primary mentors with whom one forms an I/Thou relationship (Gehrke, 1988). Real mentoring involves much more than just fulfilling mentoring functions in someone's life.

Clawson (1980) graphically portrayed this complex blending of mentoring process and function when he designed the model on page 18 that describes mentoring and places it in context with other developmental relationships based upon the degree of commitment and comprehensiveness of influence on the protege (Fagan, 1988).

As Little (1990) points out, many current mentoring programs have mentors participating who do not fully understand their role. In these types of situations, it would really be better to rename these programs as assistance for beginning teachers but not mentoring. For many people the word mentoring connotes a relationship that includes expectations of a level of commitment and comprehensiveness that are not currently found in many educational mentoring programs. Often, when people hear the word mentor, they think of traditional primary mentors. While primary mentorships tend to offer the most benefits and include rich depth and breadth in the relationship, they also contain the most risks and are not always available to people (Darling, 1984-1985; Kram and Isabella, 1985; Lambert and Lambert, 1985). In order to maximize situations in which real mentoring

Two Dimensions Which Identify the Mentor-Protege Relationship



can occur, those who work with mentoring need to be aware of the complexity of mentoring and work with *both* its *process* and *function*.

Conclusion

In this chapter, mentoring has been discussed as a complex process and function. Its complexity can be seen in the needs of both mentors and proteges, the developmental issues each individual faces, and the complexity of mentors' roles. The process of mentoring is reflected not only in the various phases of mentoring, but also in the developmental processes inherent within mentoring itself. Awareness of the function of mentoring alerts educators to different types and styles of mentoring and can assist participants in becoming aware of a mentoring mosaic in their lives, thus avoiding over-reliance upon one mentor.

Mentoring has served as a powerful developer of human potential throughout the centuries (Head and Gray, 1988). However, as Gehrke (1988) and Little (1990) have pointed out, so much of what is currently labeled as mentoring is not real mentoring. Mentoring has tremendous power to assist in inducting neophytes into a profession (Reiman, McNair, McGee, Hines, 1988). However, we must understand the complexity of mentoring and work with its process and function if we are to actualize its potential to make a difference for beginning teachers and education as a whole (Gehrke, 1988; Huling-Austin, 1990; Kay, 1990; Little, 1990; Reiman, 1991; Thies-Sprinthall and Sprinthall, 1987).

The stakes are high for our teachers. Currently 40-50% of them leave education after teaching seven years or less (Huling-Austin, 1989). Many of those who leave are our best and brightest (Schlechty and Vance, 1981). Numerous authors have addressed the issue of teacher induction with mentoring as a key component of induction programs. However, mentoring must be implemented wisely with attention to its complexity, process, and function in the lives of both mentor and protege. As a profession, even if we were not compelled to act because of what

we know is right, we cannot afford to complacently stand by with an impending teacher shortage in both the quality and quantity of our teachers. Let's not add mentoring to the already too long list of educational fads that have been tried but not always implemented wisely. Mentoring *can* make a difference for teachers, but it needs to be real mentoring complete with its complexity in process and function.

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Chapter 2

Psychological Support for Mentors and Beginning Teachers: A Critical Dimension

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Mentoring is a complex function involving the personal, the psychological and the professional skills of the support teacher. In many instances mentors are not trained in all of these areas and the major concentration of their training is in the professional skills of teaching. The emphasis on professional skill development has been the guiding force for training mentors within the literature over the past few years. Little or no discussion on the importance of developing a mentor's personal skills, such as those that come under the psychological support dimension, has been presented. An example of this was given by Varah, et al. (1986) when they reported two primary qualifications for mentoring. These were a dedication to teaching and a willingness to extend their teaching responsibilities to include work with a new member of the profession (p.31). Both of these qualifications come under the area of professional skills. The authors also stated that the mentor should provide encouragement and reassurance and help beginning teachers develop security and confidence that will improve their teaching. Here again, one may see this as professional skill development, since it focuses on improving the teaching area rather than placing the focus on the personal and psychological development of the beginning teacher.

There are numerous other literature studies that also place the emphasis of the mentor's role in the professional area. Wildman (1989), for example, organized the support given to beginning teachers into five major categories: (1) to help them learn about teaching, (2) to feel good about their teaching, (3) to manage their work loads, (4) to become a part of the school community, and (5) to be good friends who offered a wide range of personal support. Anderson (1986) was another author who defined four

different types of mentors. Three of these categories emphasize professional skills while one discussed support, encouragement and advice on day-to-day problems. The California State Department of Education (1983, p.7) also identifies criteria for the selection of mentors. When examining these carefully, one will find that nothing is mentioned regarding the personal development of the beginning teacher or the training a mentor must have to develop personal and psychological skills for themselves or for the protege.

To reiterate, there appear to be vast limitations and great areas of need in the training of mentor teachers regarding the help they need to give a beginning teacher with the development of their personal and psychological skills. This need was recognized at the ATE Advanced National Academy on Induction and Mentoring (1990). In the closing session of the conference, Peggy Ishler reviewed the major issues related to needs for helping beginning teachers. Psychological Support was cited as one of the most critical needs identified at the conference.

The primary contribution of this chapter will be to define what personal and psychological support and skill development are, and discuss the type of training a mentor needs to facilitate personal skill development in the protege.

The Need For Personal and Psychological Development

With the high dropout rate among beginning teachers, it is imperative that we train mentors in helping beginning teachers to develop their personal skills and to become more self confident if they are to survive (Gold, 1990 b).

Beginning teachers are usually left to their own resources to survive their first year of teaching (Veenmen, 1984). Those who have a strong self-concept and are able to rely on their own strength somehow make it through those trying first years. For those who lack an inner strength and resilience, and are unaware of their need to build support agents, the stress and disillusionment often lead to burnout (Gold, 1990a).

One of the most important functions of a mentor is to help the beginning teacher identify the strengths they do have and develop necessary coping skills so he or she can be self reliant. To do this, a planned program of psychological support is necessary (Gold, 1990 b).

Psychological Support: Meeting Teachers at Their Area of Need

The major issue that needs to be addressed in the design and development of support programs for beginning teachers is that these professionals must be met at their area of need. Attention to the professional problems they face each day in curriculum, classroom discipline, and management is only attending to the symptoms rather than dealing with the needs of the individual teacher. It is important to address these professional concerns to assist the beginning teacher so he or she can be more successful. However, without the development of personal and psychological skills the level of success is limited. Attempting to handle the emotions and the stress that accompany these emotions is often overwhelming and can significantly diminish the beginning teacher's ability to apply the professional skills he or she has learned during the training period and first few months of teaching.

What this writer is proposing is an entirely new type of support system that concentrates on the growth and development of individual teachers and meets them at their level of psychological need. The program must include the necessary skills and type of support to help them cope with daily pressures and demands in both their personal and their professional lives. This type of program also provides the necessary skills for mentor teachers so they can assist the beginning teacher in meeting their personal and professional needs in order to survive the beginning years of teaching.

A comprehensive program of Psychological Support proposed by this writer focuses on three specific areas of need: (1) Emotional-Physical, (2) Psycho-Social, and (3) Personal-Intel-

lectual (Gold, 1990a). Examples of these needs are provided in the following figure:

Figure 1

Identified Needs

Emotional-Physical	Psycho-Social	Personal-Intellectual
self-esteem	friendships	intellectual stimulation
security	relationships	new ideas/knowledge
acceptance	collegiality	aesthetic experiences
self-confidence	interactions	challenges
illness resistance		innovative techniques

(Gold and Roth, in press)

For each of these areas, the Psychological Support Program concentrates on the teacher's needs as well as providing strategies for dealing with them in a comprehensive and systematic program. The Emotional-Physical area includes an on-going stress-reduction and stress-controlling treatment plan. Teachers become aware of the threat to their emotional health when they react to their feelings with negative behavior patterns. Learning to identify their feelings and also learning coping skills on how to deal with their feelings will contribute to their learning a self reliance that promotes emotional and physical health. Acquiring specific problem-solving skills where they identify their problem and apply information and knowledge to reconceptualize and handle the problems are all part of dealing with stressful circumstances (Sarason, 1980).

Recognizing emotional needs of beginning teachers and teaching them coping skills where they can be successful will help them gain confidence in their own ability to handle problem situations. Learning professional skills without concentrating on personal and psychological skills will not assist them when their

emotions are overwhelming and they lack necessary coping skills. If they are left on their own to handle their emotions and situations the best way they can, this often produces feelings of loneliness and isolation. When they are unsuccessful, this only reinforces their feelings of low self-concept which usually sets up a negative cycle.

A comprehensive stress reduction plan includes: diagnosis of the individual's needs; identification of emotions and feelings involved in stressful circumstances; learning coping skills to handle their own emotions; receiving support from a trusted and knowledgeable mentor who guides them with problem-focused strategies; giving attention to exercise and diet, and using guided relaxation training.

The second part of Psychological Support focuses on Psycho-Social needs. This aspect of the program concentrates on meeting the beginning teacher's need to interact by giving and receiving support from the mentor teacher and from other colleagues. This type of support is vital to the beginning teacher's growth and helps to eliminate the isolation and alienation reported by numerous beginning teachers. If isolation is not dealt with it can lead to feelings of loneliness and helplessness which often lead to burnout (Gold, 1985). Helping beginning teachers become aware of their socials needs and finding healthy ways to gratify these needs is vital. New coping skills can be learned through support groups of beginning teachers and also in a one-on-one relationship with a mentor who is trained in providing this type of assistance.

The third area of Psychological Support deals with the Personal-Intellectual needs of the beginning teacher. These teachers need intellectual stimulation to avoid boredom. The type of stimulation they received while in college is often lacking the first few years of teaching when they are overwhelmed with paper work. Intellectual stimulation from a mentor who can guide and direct them in meeting their intellectual needs must not be overlooked.

Psychological Support presented here provides for the meeting of beginning teachers' individual needs through the development of a personal plan for each teacher. The plan includes identification of needs in each of the three major areas (Emotional-Physical, Psycho-Social, and Personal-Intellectual), and establishing objectives on how to meet these needs. Specific strategies to bring about change are also included. Psychological Support also makes provision for change to take place gradually while support is offered by a trained mentor and other significant individuals.

The Role of the Mentor in Assisting Beginning Teachers Through the Use of Psychological Support

Before any assistance can be accepted by the beginning teacher, if permanent change is to take place, a relationship must be developed between the two individuals. The mentor needs to be an accepting individual who knows how to communicate genuine feelings of acceptance to the beginning teacher. Developing listening skills that demonstrate an understanding of how the beginning teacher feels and also having the skill to communicate this is of extreme importance. Being available and taking time to develop a relationship are also necessary and will demonstrate to the protege a willingness to offer help. As this relationship is developed, there are other important considerations. One of these areas of concern is how to give encouragement to the protege rather than pampering.

Encouragement is defined in many ways. It is an acceptance of the other individual and an ability to communicate to him or her that you understand what he is experiencing and feeling. It is also important to demonstrate a willingness to give that person your support as he or she works through the steps necessary for bringing about change. To do this, the environment must be emotionally safe and the beginning teacher needs to feel free to try new ideas without the fear of non-retrievable losses (Kay, 1990, p.31).

Developing this type of relationship is a vital part of Psychological Support. A mentor must be trained in a comprehensive program of psychological support that focuses on the psychological needs of the beginning teacher in the three specific areas of need: (1) Emotional-Physical, (2) Psycho-Social, and (3) Personal-Intellectual. Being confident and knowledgeable in these areas will assist the mentor in facilitating growth in the protege.

Guiding beginning teachers in the use of specific problem-solving strategies as they identify their own personal and psychological needs is of utmost importance. After they have identified their needs according to Figure 1, it is necessary to develop a specific plan to meet these needs. A major part of the plan will focus on helping them identify the stressors in their personal and professional life along with developing the necessary coping skills to handle the stress they encounter every day.

Since teaching is regarded as a stressful profession (Kryiacou & Sutcliffe, 1977), it is especially important that beginning teachers are given this type of psychological support, so they can manage the stress and perceived levels of burnout they are experiencing (Gold, et al., 1990).

The plan consists of six basic steps: (1) identification of their stressors (situations, events and individuals), (2) clarification of where, who, and how often these stressors take place, (3) recognition of their feelings associated with the stressors, (4) descriptions of their associated behaviors, (5) realization of their capability to control the stressors, and (6) specific strategies on how to bring about the necessary changes in their life (Gold, 1990b).

Mentor teachers must be trained in how to develop a personal plan of Psychological Support where individual needs are identified and specific strategies for learning coping skills are included. If we are to develop an inner strength in beginning teachers, this type of program is of vital importance.

Mentoring is a necessary means for training, guiding and encouraging beginning teachers to become aware of their psy-

chological needs and to meet these needs in constructive ways. To accomplish this task, mentors must also develop these skills in their own lives and learn how to assist beginning teachers to identify and meet their own psychological needs.

Conclusion

In summary, a program of Psychological Support has been described as a means of assisting beginning teachers in their personal development so they can survive the beginning years of teaching. This program provides for the identification of teachers' needs in three major areas: (1) Emotional-Physical, (2) Psycho-Social, and (3) Personal-Intellectual.

For the past three years, this author has gained first-hand experience through the success of a program for beginning teachers. The task of helping these teachers survive their first few years is a challenge for teacher educators. It calls for bold new thinking regarding the personal development of our beginning teachers. If we are to prepare these teachers more successfully, and assist them during the entry-level years, then we have the responsibility and the opportunity to contribute to their individual growth and help them develop the necessary resilience to survive.

With the dropout and burnout rate at excessive levels, we must give serious attention to the personal and psychological needs of our beginning teachers as well as their professional needs. The time is now, the need has presented itself, the challenge is ours.

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Chapter 3

Mentoring: A Teacher Development Activity That Avoids Formal Evaluation of the Protege

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Mentoring as a special relationship between the protege and experienced teacher holds tremendous potential for the professional development of new teachers during the initial years of teaching. This is a critical time for professional development; teachers are establishing patterns and attitudes that may persist throughout a career of teaching (Borko, 1986). Likewise, mentoring is a teacher development activity that provides a high level of intensive support for the early professional growth of a protege.

Formal evaluation procedures are intended to contribute to teacher development, but they focus on making value judgements of teaching performance. The evaluation process by which school districts obtain data relative to hiring and retention decisions compares teaching practices to established standards of acceptable performance (Rebore, 1982; McGreal, 1983; Popham, 1988). As such, evaluation itself represents a high level of stress for most teachers, new and experienced ones alike (Eckard & McElhinney, 1977; Withall & Wood, 1979). Although an important and critical role for school personnel, evaluation remains a values-driven process that focuses upon the critical analysis of teacher performance.

Because of the inherent differences between providing unconditional support and measuring acceptable performance, this chapter shows that the activities of mentoring and evaluating teacher performance are on opposite ends of a continuum. Teacher development activities are discussed in the extent to which each is formative or summative in contributing to the professional growth of new teachers. Moreover, the disparate

purposes of mentoring and evaluating as functions of school personnel are incompatible activities.

In the sections that follow, the concepts of formative and summative procedures are clarified and related to five activities that contribute to the professional development of teachers. The five teacher development activities are placed on a continuum that ranges from non-judgmental acceptance (mentoring) to value-seeking analysis (evaluating). Next, the qualities of the mentoring relationship are compared to the various role descriptors associated with implementing evaluation procedures. The chapter concludes with an examination of the needs of beginning teachers and how the potential of mentoring to meet those needs may be obverted if evaluation is a required function.

A Continuum of Teacher Development Activities

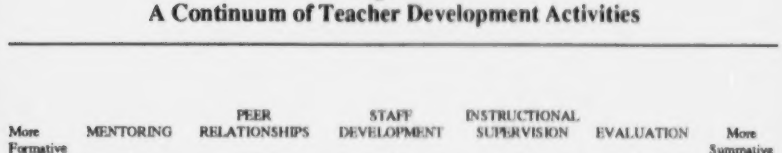
The terms formative and summative, coined by Scriven (1967) in a seminal work on curriculum evaluation, are now commonly utilized in the literature on teacher evaluation (e.g., McGreal, 1983; Hunter, 1988; Manatt, 1988; Scriven, 1988). They make a distinction between evaluation intended to facilitate a teacher's ongoing development by providing non-judgmental feedback related to aspects of performance (formative) and evaluation intended to focus on drawing conclusions about the worth and value of a teacher's performance (summative). While formative evaluation shapes and assists teachers to improve and refine their craft, summative evaluation procedures are always concerned with judgement (Stake, 1967).

Even Manatt (1988) distinguishes between the purposes, philosophies, theories, and practices of formative evaluation versus summative evaluation. The purpose of formative evaluation is to help teachers teach better through ongoing, descriptive, and nonjudgemental interactions; the purpose of summative evaluation is to help management make better decisions through final, judgmental, and adjudicative interactions. The philosophy of formative evaluation is that each individual strives for excellence, whereas the philosophy of summative evaluation is that

individuals achieve excellence only if supervised or evaluated by others. Learning theory drives formative evaluation—the teacher works toward competence as an adult learner, and reward or punishment is internal. Testing theory drives summative evaluation—the teacher evaluation is conducted to improve the organization, and reward or punishment is external. In practice, formative evaluation considers the process of instruction, not the person; its orientation is that of coaching. The practice of summative evaluation, on the other hand, considers the products of instruction and fulfills a comparing and sorting function.

Here, the terms formative and summative are expanded as descriptors of four common forms of teacher development activities that exist in most school settings: peer relationships among teachers, staff development programs, instructional supervision, and traditional evaluation. To these four is added a fifth activity, mentoring. These activities form a continuum of teacher development activities (see Figure 1) on which the terms formative-summative are utilized to distinguish among support activities based on trust and collegiality and those which are based on more of a hierarchical arrangement of authority. On this continuum, mentoring is the most formative teacher development activity and evaluation is the most summative teacher development activity. A brief explanation of each activity and a rationale for its placement on the continuum follow.

Figure 1
A Continuum of Teacher Development Activities



Mentoring

With its emphasis on providing comprehensive and unconditional support to proteges, the concept of mentoring fulfills each of Manatt's descriptions of formative activities. It is placed, therefore, first on the continuum displayed on page 37.

Mentoring, whether a one-to-one relationship or a system of several persons providing assistance to novices, defines an atmosphere in which mutual trust and belief are the ultimate goals (Odell, 1990). In such an atmosphere, mentors engage in marshalling all available resources in order to "... have an intense impact on the development of the protege (Kay, 1990, p. 27)." In this capacity, mentors are perhaps most effective when they view their role as one of initiating the necessary activities that will facilitate the professional growth of the protege (Huling-Austin, 1990).

This active initiator role of mentoring is set apart from the informal sharing relationships (to be discussed below) in which teachers traditionally have engaged (Huling-Austin, 1990). Mentoring requires a commitment to actively exert a consistent influence on the professional development of a protege to the extent that necessary experiences are created and activities are promoted that will contribute to the positive growth and competence of the protege. Clearly, this is a role for someone who is an excellent teacher (for modeling), someone who can teach an adult learner (the protege), and someone who can inspire confidence and trust. Only teachers—those who are masters of their craft, who can convey its subtleties and nuances to another, and who are willing to provide assistance for the sake of another's growth—can function as true mentors. Mentoring is the essence of formative support for new teachers.

Peer Relationships

Informal assistance and other forms of peer support appear next on the continuum as peer relationships. They serve an important support function, since teachers frequently share com-

mon concerns and seek advice from one another. Indeed, teachers are more likely to turn to a colleague for assistance rather than a supervisor or other administrator (Lortie, 1975) who they perceive as a threat, especially if the administrator is functioning as an evaluator.

This form of assistance, however, while valuable for beginning teachers is not considered the equivalent of mentoring. It is driven by the needs of the teacher seeking help rather than being directed by the insight and wisdom of an experienced guide. Even though the needs of novices, as they perceive them, represent valid foci for improvement efforts, the professional development of a novice requires a long view of the complex process that extends beyond the urgent nature of immediate needs (e.g., developing mechanisms that foster self-reliance; cf. Kay, 1990).

In recent years, more structured forms of peer assistance have been developed in response to reform efforts and calls for improved instructional support (Neal, 1984). Specific peer interaction plans include peer observation (Glatthorn, 1985; Sparks, 1986), peer coaching (Strother, 1989; Chase & Wolfs, 1989; Raney & Robbins, 1989), and peer clinical observation (Withall & Wood, 1979; Freeman, Palmer, & Ferren, 1980; McFaul, 1983). These forms of peer support are derived from the concept of building collegiality among teachers.

Because peers deliver assistance and feedback, peer development programs are primarily formative in nature. However, peer programs appear to be less driven by a commitment to another's growth (as in mentoring) as they are by creating a mechanism to deliver more relevant supervision (cf. Withall & Wood, 1979; Raney & Robbins, 1989). (Refer to discussion of Instructional Supervision below.) These programs are collegial and perform an assisting role; therefore, peer relationships are placed next to mentoring in terms of the level of formative support provided.

Staff Development

Staff development consists of specific activities planned for teachers to enhance their professional competencies after they have received state licensure and begun professional practice (Howey, 1985). Staff development constitutes the major on-going educational program for teachers of a specific district and/or school. As a form of teacher development, it occupies a mid-point on the formative-summative continuum. Although much of what is done as staff development is intended to further professional growth, staff development practices frequently have lacked the impact of actually influencing and changing teacher practice (Joyce & Showers, 1980; Wood & Thompson, 1980; Fullan, 1990).

Given the discussions on school reform, restructuring the governance of schools, and enhancing school culture, educators have reappraised staff development practices and have identified characteristics of effective staff development programs. According to Sparks (1983), Wood and Thompson (1980), staff development efforts need to:

- Be of sufficient duration for long-term change to occur;
- Include more control by teachers over what and how new teaching methods are learned;
- Focus on job related tasks that teachers feel are real and important;
- Give opportunities to practice new ideas in real work settings;
- Encourage teachers to work in groups and learn from each other;
- Reduce the use and threat of external judgements from one's superior by allowing peer-participants to give each other

> feedback concerning performance and areas of needed improvement.

If recast along these guidelines, staff development practices would be largely formative in nature. However, many school districts may not have adopted this newer view of staff development, so programs may still reflect an emphasis on evaluation criteria, outside experts, and short-term attempts at instructional improvement. Placing staff development at the mid-point on our continuum indicates that staff development practices have the potential of either contributing formatively or summatively to teacher development, depending on the orientation that a specific district adopts for its staff development program.

Instructional Supervision

The process of supervision is the vehicle which has been charged traditionally with affecting needed improvement of instruction in schools (Goldhammer, Anderson, & Krajewski, 1980). Alfonso, Firth, & Neville (1975) conceptualize instructional supervision as, "Behavior officially designated by the organization that directly affects teacher behavior in such a way as to facilitate pupil learning and achieve the goals of the organization (pp. 35-36)." Although it embraces the goal of enhancing student learning, however, traditional supervision frequently fails to effectively influence the professional growth of teachers (Goldhammer, 1980). Blumberg (1980) summarizes the supervision dilemma in this way:

> Two general statements about supervision in the schools can be made. The first is that much of what occurs in the name of supervision constitutes a waste of time, as teachers perceive it ... The second is that the character of relationships between teachers ... and supervisors ... can be described as somewhat of a cold war. Neither side trusts the other (p. 5).

The traditional mistrust between supervisor and teacher exists not only because the world of the supervisor is removed from the

world of practice (Sergiovanni, 1985), but because supervision has been frequently conceived as being synonymous with evaluation (Goens, 1982). Although recent views of instructional supervision have helped to redefine supervision apart from the administrative function of evaluation (Glatthorn, 1984), by its very nature of being a function of a school district's administrative structure, formal supervision of instruction is frequently viewed by teachers as a part of the evaluation process. Moreover, the direct connection between supervision and evaluation is reinforced when supervision and evaluation are performed by the same person. For these reasons, supervision is placed on the continuum of teacher development activities next to evaluation in terms of the extent to which it is perceived by teachers as summative.

Evaluation

Evaluation serves vitally important purposes for a school district. It also provides a means of accountability for hiring decisions by administrative personnel and a means by which to pursue school improvement. Perhaps the most germane to this discussion, however, are the ways in which evaluation contributes to the professional development of teachers. Well-founded, comprehensive evaluation programs provide an array of summative data accompanied by clear communication regarding the acceptability of an individual teacher's performance in relation to the school's standards. Moreover, a strong evaluation program engenders positive feelings and promotes high morale to the extent that it recognizes effective and exemplary performance and does not tolerate marginal performance. To this end, evaluation provides an authoritative affirmation of the importance of quality teaching (McGreal, 1983; Peterson, 1990).

As the formalized procedure for assessing teacher performance, evaluation is the most summative in intent and purpose of the five teacher development activities discussed. It is also shown as the most summative of the five teacher development activities on the continuum because the literature on teacher evaluation overwhelmingly aligns it with the values-driven func-

tion of summative evaluation (Rebore, 1982; McGreal, 1983; Popham, 1988; Scriven, 1988; Millman & Darling-Hammond, 1990). Moreover, a clear separation of formative and summative functions is reflected by scholars in the field. Here are a few headings and subtitles from the literature: Formative and Summative Folly, A Sticky Wicket: Summative Teacher Evaluation (Popham, 1988); Segregating Summative Evaluation from Development Support (McGreal, 1983); and How Formative Evaluation Differs from Summative Evaluation in Performance Appraisal of the Education Professional (Manatt, 1988). As Scriven (1988) maintains:

> Without this separation [of formative and summative roles], it is unreasonable to expect teachers to go to formative advisers about their weaknesses. One might as well expect clients to seek advice from attorneys who are doubling as judges on the same case. Further, teachers getting help from the person who will judge them is akin to teaching to the test or authors reviewing their own works (pp. 114-15).

The formative-summative continuum offers a single dimension along which to rank five activities intended to promote the professional development of teachers. The continuum of activities may be viewed in several ways, as one moves away from the formative end toward the summative end. These activities will vary with the day-to-day interactions and teacher relationships. They will move from collegial to hierarchical purposes, shifting from support to appraisal. Therefore, the teacher's sphere of control does move from self to others.

At this juncture, it is useful to consider further the two ends of the continuum, mentoring and evaluating, in reference to new teachers. Both are affirmed as equally important teacher development activities, but a mentoring program that deliberately avoids the function of formal teacher evaluation best serves the professional growth of novice teachers.

Mentoring vs. Evaluating New Teachers

The essence of mentoring is found in its assisting function (Odell, 1990). Among the most common descriptions of the functions of mentoring are the terms **Supporter, Sponsor, Patron, Guide, Counselor, Advisor, Protector, Encourager, Confidant,** and **Befriender**. Each of these functions identified with mentoring, as shown in figure 2, implies a level of trust in which a protege feels safe to openly seek assistance in areas of professional and personal needs. Perhaps not surprisingly, the act of evaluation is noticeably absent from all of these conceptions of mentoring.

In contrast, descriptors of the evaluating role include the terms **Appraiser, Assessor, Judge, Rater, Estimator, Reckoner,** and **Authority**. Underlying each of these is an emphasis on determining worth through a critical analysis of performance. Evaluation of performance is a traditional and required function of school personnel and sound evaluation programs contribute to

Figure 2
Role Descriptors of Two Teacher Development Activities

Activity: Mentoring	Activity: Evaluating
Supporter	Appraisor
Sponsor/Patron	Assessor
Guide	Judge
Counselor/Advisor	Rater
Protector	Estimator
Encourager	Reckoner
Confidant/Befriender	Authority

teachers' professional development by conveying summative data and conclusions about performance. To confound the helping and assistance role of mentoring with the task of conducting formal evaluation of teaching performance is to undermine the very condition—trust—that is required for mentoring to flourish (Lewis, 1980; Fox & Singletary, 1986; Moffett, St. John, & Isken, 1987; *Perspectives on teacher induction*, 1987).

The major impetus for the growth of mentoring in school settings has been the attempt to more adequately meet the needs of new teachers (Little, 1990). Odell (1989) and Veenman (1984) have conducted research into the needs of new teachers as perceived by the novices themselves. Classroom discipline, instructional methodology, motivating students, dealing with individual differences among students, and assessing students' work are among the most frequently mentioned areas of need.

The two areas in which formal evaluation by district personnel frequently focus on are effective teaching performance (methodology) and classroom management (discipline) skills. These areas represent intense professional sensitivity for novice teachers. They realize the significance of adequate performance of effective teaching and classroom managerial skills. It is highly unlikely, however, that insecure novices will turn to the individual who is responsible for evaluation to seek the level of support and assistance they require. Instead of seeking help, novices may very well spend their energy "covering up" or engaging in other unproductive compensating behavior. The novice is one for whom open and honest inquiry, plenty of opportunities to experiment with developing instructional expertise, and much nonjudgmental support are absolutely essential for professional development. Odell (1990) asserts:

> ... only the assistance function is consonant with a significant mentoring relationship. Stated quite simply, 'mentors' who engage in evaluations for future employment decisions are not mentoring (p. 17).

Mentoring and evaluating, it may be concluded, represent the most formative and most summative of teacher development

activities. They are disparate and incompatible activities which cannot productively be carried out by the same person.

In conclusion, this chapter places the practice of mentoring into perspective as a form of teacher development along a continuum of other activities intended for the professional growth of teachers. Additionally, this chapter presents a perspective of mentoring and evaluating as equally valid avenues of teacher development, yet fundamentally different ones in terms of the nature and purpose of the support provided by each.

The difference in the primary functions of mentoring and evaluating requires a clear separation between them if a nurturing environment for novice teachers is to be established. A well-established principle, therefore, for developing and sustaining mentoring programs is to clearly distinguish mentoring as a separate activity from formal evaluation. To this end, individuals who perform each role must perform it in a manner that is exclusive of the other.

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Chapter 4

Mentor-Management: Emphasizing the HUMAN in Managing Human Resources.

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Boss-Management

"Quality Education Is The Only Answer to Our School Problems." To achieve quality education, current standards for student achievement will have to be raised and sweeping changes made in the way schools are managed (Glasser, 1990). Boss-management, currently the dominant approach to school management, is based on a stimulus-response model where desired behaviors are rewarded and undesirable ones punished. It is adversarial relations between managers and workers. Boss-management controls the operation of the system by setting policies and imposing standards and manipulating sanctions for or against worker behavior. Workers within this type of system tend to do as little as possible. For example, Glasser interviewed a large number of students. The majority of these students reported that they were capable of doing quality work in class, but they had never done it and had no plans of doing it in the future (Glasser, 1990, p.1).

Lead-Management

Glasser proposes lead-management, based on his own control theory, as an alternative to boss-management in the schools and other organizations as well. Lead-management utilizes persuasion, problem-solving and cooperation as its tools to entice workers (students or others) toward quality performance. Lead-management includes four essential elements: 1) getting the workers involved in describing quality performance and what must be done to obtain it, 2) providing models of the expected performances, 3) asking workers to inspect and evaluate the

quality of their own performance, and 4) facilitating their work by providing proper tools, resources and work environment. In Glasser's words, "The lead-manager spends all of his time and energy figuring out how to run the system, so workers will see that it is to their benefit to do quality work."

While lead-management presents a welcome alternative to the more negative and coercive techniques of boss-management, both approaches fail to address what should be the main purpose of schools—developing responsible citizens. Glasser defines "quality schools" in terms of high levels of student achievement. Quality schools have a positive impact on the social, physical, psychological, moral and intellectual development of all students. To say it directly, quality schools produce competent, caring and responsible citizens (Kay, 1989). The single most important goal of society and education is to help people develop the attributes and skills to be responsible for themselves. The purpose of education is broad; the focus of lead-management is much too restrictive.

Mentor-Management

An alternative to both boss- and lead-management is mentor-management. Mentor-management focuses on the individual and what can be done to prepare the worker to be responsible for himself. Kay (1990) envisioned mentoring as a function not limited to long-term, comprehensive, one-on-one relationships. By viewing mentoring as a function, new options are opened for making the benefits of mentoring available to larger numbers of individuals. Mentor-management is a philosophy and program for management aimed at accomplishing the stated goals and purposes of mentoring in a variety of different contexts including home, school, church, government and business. The strategies and principles of mentor management are equally appropriate for one-on-one relationships and large organizations. A worker can have one or several mentor-managers. Systematic application of the strategies and principles at all levels of the organizational structure creates a consistent environment where responsibility can be learned and practiced. Schools are espe-

cially appropriate environments because of the nature and number of workers affected by management. Students are malleable, the experiences and training they receive stay with them for a long time and have serious implications for long-term well-being of the individual and society.

Kay (1990) defined mentoring as, "...a comprehensive effort directed toward helping a protege develop the attitudes and behaviors (skills) of self-reliance and accountability within a defined environment." Building on this definition, mentor-management is systematic and comprehensive effort directed toward helping individuals develop the attributes and skills to be responsible for themselves. Mentor-management is based on a simple, four-step strategy.

Step 1. Teach them how. Workers must be taught the skills needed for their success. These skills come in two categories, generic skills essential for responsible behavior (Kay, 1990) and specific skills related to the tasks, functions and duties of the individual worker. For example, an essential skill for success as a first-year teacher would be lesson planning. For a child, a skill might be subtracting with borrowing or mowing the lawn.

Step 2. Let them do. The worker must be allowed to apply the skill and practice, using it in appropriate contexts. Proper experience builds confidence and expertise for the worker. The worker must also know he is expected to use the skill and become proficient in its use.

Step 3. Help them learn from having done. Each experience applying the skill provides an excellent opportunity to learn. The worker is taught to review his own performance and critique it against established criteria. This learning activity is conducted on all performances regardless of the worker's success or failure in the activity.

Step 4. Accept them unconditionally. Each worker must be valued as a person of worth, regardless of the outcome of his efforts in applying the skill. Unconditional acceptance is critical. People who feel their value is on the line each time they perform

tend to shy away from activities where they lack confidence. Unconditional acceptance of the person allows that person to risk and extend his efforts into new areas and expand his capabilities.

Following this strategy, each mentor-manager works to create a supportive environment of unconditional acceptance where assistance, resources and opportunities for learning responsibility are constantly available to the individual worker. Question is, "What types of assistance, resources and experiences are likely to be the most helpful in helping someone learn to be responsible for himself?"

Responsibility

In order to understand the challenges facing mentor-managers in developing responsible individuals, some discussion of the constructs and mechanisms of responsibility is needed. Responsible individuals are self-reliant (Glasser, 1965) and accountable (Blasi, 1984). Their choices and actions are self-initiated and based on internalized standards of performance and moral/ethical principles. Responsible individuals hold themselves accountable and do not rely on others to police their choices and actions. These people have the ability to set their own direction in life and to monitor and sustain themselves in a continuous growth process (Kay, 1989). Responsible behavior is a product of self-reliance and accountability. Mentor-management responsibility should be directed toward helping the individual develop the attributes and skills of self-reliance and accountability.

Self-Reliance

Self-reliance is a multifaceted construct with roots in several educational and psychological theories including: competence motivation (White, 1959), achievement motivation (Atkinson, 1966), personal causation (de Charmes, 1968), attribution theory (Weiner, 1972) and intrinsic motivation (Deci, 1975; Deci & Ryan, 1985). Self-reliance has at least four dimensions. First, it is a motivation based on a human need to be competent and self-determining. Second, it is a confidence in personal powers

and judgments. Third, it is competence and having the abilities to meet one's own needs. Fourth, self-reliance is an action; it is initiating the activity relying on one's own powers and judgments.

Self-Reliance is a Motive

White's (1959) proposed theory of motivation refers to the human need to be competent in exercising one's power in the environment. According to White, all individuals possess this need and are motivated to action by the desire to become competent. Deci (1975) combines the need to be competent with a need to be self-determining in his theory of intrinsic motivation. Self-determination is, "...the capacity to choose and have those choices, rather than reinforcement contingencies, drives, or any other forces or pressures, be the determinants of one's actions," (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Behavior is intrinsically motivated when the individual perceives the possibility for receiving satisfaction (through feeling competent and self-determining) from participation in the activity (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Part of self-reliance is being energized into action from within. It is being intrinsically motivated.

Self-Reliance is Confidence

Self-reliance is a confidence in and a willingness to rely on one's own powers and judgments. It may also be described as an expectancy for success in activities where success or failure depends on one's own abilities and efforts (de Charmes, 1968; Weiner, 1972). Expectancy for success or failure is based on a history of previous experience with the same or similar tasks (Atkinson, 1965). Confidence in one's own powers and judgments can be built on two fronts: repeated experience in performing a task and training in skills which apply to divergent tasks. Repeated experience with a task strengthens the powers and judgments involved in that task. Confidence can be based on previous experience with the task. Confidence can also be based on powers and judgments which generalized to a wide variety of activities and tasks. A person can be confident of success in a

new task based on confidence in powers and abilities which generalize to the new situation.

It is also important in the development of self-reliance for the individual to learn to recognize the role played by his abilities and efforts in determining the success or failure. Metacognitive skills increase the awareness of the individual to his own learning processes and performances (Brown, 1978). Metacognitive strategies effectively increase the individual's awareness of his own efforts, progress and accomplishments. Self-monitoring and metacognitive processes show great potential for enhancing self-reliance.

Self-Reliance is Competence

Glasser (1965) says that responsibility is relying on self for getting one's own needs met. Realistically, an individual can be self-reliant only when he does in fact have the ability to meet his own needs. The potential for self-reliance grows as the abilities of the individual increase. As already discussed, some abilities provided a much broader base for self-reliance than do others. The ability to change a tire, for example, prepares the individual to deal with a specific situation. The ability to analyze problems and identify solutions is a much broader skill and prepares the individual to approach a greater variety of situations with confidence. The individual gains greater potential for being self-reliant when he learns skills that generalize broadly into other areas of life.

Competence also grows as the individual is expected to use his powers and abilities. The literature on learned helplessness indicates that doing something for someone that he can do for himself slows down his growth and undermines his confidence (Covington & Beery, 1976). Good advice to would-be-helpers is to separate their need to help from the individual's need for help (Coopersmith & Feldman, 1974). Self-reliance is enhanced when the individual relies on himself and feels success.

Self-Reliance is an Action

Finally, self-reliance is a decision by the individual to engage in the activity relying on his own powers and judgments for success. This decision is complex and based on the desire to be competent and self-determining, the individual's confidence in himself, the probability for success, and the risks associated with failure. The individual is more willing to make this decision when the risks of failure are reversible. In many cases, individuals resist the desire to be competent and self-determining and do not exercise their own powers and judgments because their ego-value is inseparably tied to the outcomes of their efforts.

In summarizing the discussion, self-reliance can be enhanced by carefully considering each of its dimensions and related theories. Self-reliance is based on desires to be competent and self-determining. The efforts of mentor-management should remember these desires and capitalize on them. Mentor-management should never undermine the individual's competence, control or personal worth.

Accountability

Accounting is a process of reconciling a choice or action against appropriate standards of acceptability. As discussed earlier, accountability is based on standards for acceptable performance and/or moral/ethical principles. For example, part of a teacher's job is to maintain an acceptable classroom environment. There are conditions (implicit or explicit) that differentiate acceptable from unacceptable. The performance of the teacher is compared against these expected conditions. If his performance is unsuccessful, he must then offer satisfactory explanation of the differences or modify his performance accordingly—the teacher accounts for his performance according to the standards.

Accounting is reconciling; accountability is being required to account. Accountability for the responsible person is self-imposed and based on internalized standards or principles. The

responsible person feels both a desire and an obligation to reconcile his choices and actions (Blasi, 1984). Blasi says that being responsible is being motivated toward self-consistency (congruence between who I am and what I do). In the framework of responsibility, the individual is internally motivated toward consistency with standards and principles that comprise his own sense of identity (Erikson, 1965).

The accounting process works in advance of, during and following choices and actions. The responsible individual uses the standards or principles to guide his choices and actions before the fact. Mentally applying the standards or principles to any situation allows the individual to carefully select his choices, avoiding many mistakes and much lost time. Accounting in advance is an essential skill for responsible behavior. The same accounting process is maintained during the choice and action as well as in retrospect or after the fact evaluation. All three applications involve basically the same skills; the main difference is their position in time.

To this point, mentor-management has been presented as an approach to helping individuals in all contexts develop the attribute and skills to be responsible for themselves. Responsibility has been defined to include self-reliance and accountability which have also been defined and discussed in relation to supporting theories. These theories provide insight into the development of self-reliance and accountability and how that might be accomplished.

Suggestions for Effective Mentor-Managers

The following suggestions are given to guide the efforts of mentor-managers as they work to develop environments where responsibility is spawned. These suggestions are drawn from the combined theories of competence, motivation, achievement motivation, personal causation, attribution, intrinsic motivations, metacognition, moral development, identity and self-consistency.

1. Help the individual develop a clear understanding of what needs to be done, how to recognize when it is done correctly and feel good about it.

To do this , the individual must be able to:

a) Identify and clarify appropriate conditions of desired performance (performance standards) and/or behavior (moral/ethical principles).

b) Use the clarified standards and/or moral/ethical principles to guide current and future performances and/or behaviors.

c) Make objective observations and descriptions of performances and/or behaviors.

d) Compare observed performances and/or behaviors with the clarified conditions of desired performance and/or behaviors to obtain feedback to guide future performances and/or behaviors.

e) Obtain valid information on personal performances and/or behaviors from other appropriate sources.

f) Use the information and feedback obtained from all sources including personal observation to make decisions concerning future performances and/or behaviors.

2. Allow the individual to engage in the performance of behavior without introducing external stimuli to coerce or reward.

3. Select and structure work activities to provide an opportunity for the individual to exercise and/or extend his powers (abilities) and/or judgments (decision making).

4. Select and structure work activities to make success or failure contingent on the efforts, powers and judgement of individual.

5. Focus all training and assistance on developing salient abilities and skills that can generalize to a wide range of work activities.

6. Allow repeated performance opportunities to allow the individual to overcome initial failures and eventually succeed in the work activity.

7. Expect the individual to use his own powers and judgments and do not allow him to sluff off his responsibilities for the work activity.

8. Restrain all efforts to help until the needs of the individual have been carefully determined.

9. Managers should develop the attributes and skills of responsibility themselves and then model them for others.

10. Keep the negative effects of failure to a minimum and allow the opportunity for the individual to overcome his failures through continued effort.

11. Separate the personal value of the individual from his efforts and do not let his value as a person be affected by the outcomes of his efforts.

Implementation

The implementation of mentor-management is not limited by the context nor constrained by the size of the group. Parents can and have used the strategy and methods of mentor-management in raising their own children in the home environment. Parents may struggle with equating management and parenting, but in reality the equation is much closer than the terms would suggest.

Many of the ideas of mentoring and mentor-management are drawn from and supported in the literature on parenting and parental styles (Baumrind, 1970).

Teachers and principals are managers who have and can use the mentor-management strategy and methods in their schools and classrooms to their own and their students' advantage (Swift & Kay, 1982; Ure & Kay, 1982; Kay 1989; Wang & Palinscar, 1990). Mentor-management has also been used in church organizations developing the expertise of lay leadership. Mentor-management is implemented both with the manager and those whom he manages. Glasser (1965) makes the statement that children learn responsibility best from responsible parents who love them. This holds true for others as well. Workers learn responsibility best from responsible managers who treat them with respect (and love if you wish). Mentor-managers should constantly work to develop and enhance the skills and attributes of self-reliance and accountability within themselves as well as with others.

Mentor-management does not occur in a vacuum. Mentor-managers have needs and special traits as do the workers they manage. Mentor-management does not prescribe what a person should become other than responsible. Managers should not impose outcomes on others. Parents should not try to mold their children into a preconceived image. Parents (managers) should help their children discover themselves and what they can and want to be and then help them to develop the traits and skills to succeed. All mentor-managers should follow the same directive—do not try to make everyone the same, help them become the best at what they can and want to be and then help them to develop the traits and skills to succeed. Part of the manager's role is to help workers develop and internalize their own set of values, standards and skills.

Mentor-management in any context has limited longevity and restrictions on its comprehensiveness. All mentor-management efforts will end. Knowing this, the mentor-manager should prepare the worker for the time beyond the end. Mentor-manage-

ment focuses on total life preparation and thus must look beyond the immediate tasks and activities of the worker.

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Chapter 5

Guidelines for Selecting Mentors and Creating An Environment for Mentoring

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The title of mentor, bestowed on veteran teachers, is a weighty responsibility. It implies that experienced teachers have pedological expertise, extensive content knowledge and the ability to nurture others. However, not all veteran teachers are equally qualified or interested in supporting a beginner. To facilitate the selection of qualified mentors and to prevent less qualified or interested teachers from becoming mentors, school districts may find it necessary to identify and publish selection guidelines that clearly delineate personal characteristics and the professional skill level that the school system considers pre-requisites for mentorship.

This chapter will discuss characteristics, skills, and functional and practical considerations that appear to have an impact on the mentor's ability to successfully complete the obligations of mentorship. It is important to note that the guidelines for selecting mentors, however critical, must be viewed in perspective, as the mentoring environment that is created by the district can either encourage or impede a mentor's efforts to provide support to the beginning teacher. Therefore, this chapter will also discuss the factors that contribute to the development of a district-wide, comprehensive mentoring environment.

Personal Characteristics

Thoughtful

Successful mentors view the act of mentoring as an opportunity for thoughtful reflection and personal growth. Zey (1984) found that through intensive collaboration with beginners and by

articulating and making their knowledge clear, mentors generate new ideas and methods. Likewise, Enz and Anderson (1989) noted that when mentors described and reviewed their practice for beginners, it stimulated self-reflection and often caused mentors to revise strategies. Further, successful mentors view their role as an opportunity to contribute to their profession by sharing their knowledge and skill with others. As Head, Reiman, and Thies-Sprinthall (1992) so beautifully state in chapter 1, "the heart and soul of mentoring is an outgrowth of a personal belief in the value and worth of people and an attitude toward teaching that focuses on 'passing the torch' to the next generation of teachers." Kay (1990) also views successful mentors as being responsible individuals who have an ethical obligation to self and others.

Facilitative Attributes

Other personal qualities that contribute to positive mentoring are confidence, a high energy level and an outgoing personality. These attributes are important for all teachers, but because the teaching profession has a long tradition of isolation and a cultural myth of self-sufficiency, it becomes especially important that a mentor is capable of initiating and maintaining the relationship (Little, 1990). Despite a veteran teacher's invitation to ask, if you have questions, it is unlikely that novices will seek help. The very act of requesting assistance often causes the beginner to feel inadequate and promotes a sense of failure. It appears that the beginning teacher will accept and respond to help more often and more favorably when it is offered rather than when it is requested (Huling-Austin, 1990; Gross & McMullun, 1982; Gross, Wallston & Piliavan, 1979).

Mentors should, of course, be nurturing and supportive and demonstrate a willingness to share ideas and materials. Because adults seek reciprocity in their interpersonal relationships, it is also essential that the mentor is receptive and able to learn from the novice, as this creates a sense of equity between them. Beginners who find themselves indebted in ways they cannot repay may resist help (Greenberg & Westcott, 1983).

Integrity

Mentors should be viewed by peers and administrators as persons of unquestionable personal and professional integrity, capable of establishing a relationship built on mutual trust and respect. In addition, it is essential that this collegial relationship be respected, by all school participants, as confidential (Odell, 1989; Bird and Alspaugh, 1986; Shulman, Hanson & King, 1985).

Professional Skills

Pedagogical and Communicative Competence

Mentors should be acknowledged as highly competent by their colleagues and administrators. They should possess current professional knowledge and demonstrate a high degree of instructional expertise, such as the understanding of their students' social, physical and emotional development, mastery of curriculum, content, and instructional pedagogy.

However important the mentors' expert knowledge may be, their ability and willingness to articulate explicitly intricacies of their own practice with beginners is perhaps a more critical issue (Kennedy, 1987). This communicative ability may need to be cultivated, as one consequence of the isolationist tradition of schools has been that teachers rarely have the opportunity to talk to one another about their work, view another teacher's classroom or model their skill for peers. Further, experienced teachers have routinized many of their daily tasks and can interpret complex classroom situations intuitively and instantaneously, thus making it difficult for them to analyze and explain moment-to-moment instructional decisions and responses to beginners (Berliner & Carter, 1986; Buchmann, 1986; Yinger, 1987).

Functional Concerns

Personal Development

It is important to select mentors who have a comprehensive view of their role as opposed to seeing themselves as just buddies. Mentors should be knowledgeable about the developmental nature of the teaching profession (Fuller, 1969). Mentors must also perceive how this developmental progression may be compounded by life stage concerns, as often beginning teachers are also young adults trying to establish mature identities.

This letter, written by Amy (age 22), provides an illustration of these dramatic life changes:

> Dear Cousin:
>
> Hi! I'm still alive after six weeks of kindergarten! I've been so busy and exhausted making games and things for my class! I've enjoyed it so far. I might want to try another grade and age group. Sometimes I feel like all I ever do in a day is say Sit down, raise your hand, keep your hands off your neighbor, etc. I guess I expected too much, but I'm learning! The teachers have been very helpful and I really love most of my kids. There are a few boys I just want to kill but that's normal.
>
> It is so hard to move and get situated. I just got my drivers license. My mom came down last month for the weekend—and this weekend I'm going home. We don't have school on Monday—and I haven't been home or seen my dad since I left home.
>
> Today was Picture Day. I'll send you one when I get them! Write me or call! It gets lonely sometimes.
>
> Love, Amy

Mentoring Functions

Odell (1986), using a functional approach, chronicled the changing needs of new teachers over a school year by having their mentors record the beginner's questions and concerns. Anderson and Enz (1990), using a weight-rank survey, asked beginning teachers to signify what mentoring functions they felt were most important to them. Though the data collection methods differed, the results were remarkably similar. It appeared that beginners were concerned about *professional issues* such as understanding district personnel policies and procedures, roles and responsibilities of the district personnel and the expectations of the school community they serve. Further, beginning teachers were highly concerned about *instructional matters* such as lesson planning, locating and selecting appropriate resources and materials, establishing effective classroom discipline and management. In addition, Anderson and Enz (1990) found that beginning teachers strongly desired their mentors to observe their classroom performance and provide feedback. Most importantly, novices revealed a critical need for *personal support and encouragement*. Mentors must be willing to respond to the specific concerns beginning teachers express and be able to provide this type of support.

Practical Concerns

Teaching Assignments

The mentor and novice relationship may be greatly facilitated when mentor and novice are matched as closely as possible for grade and/or content areas. Matching maximizes the mentor's opportunity to use his or her expertise and increases the likelihood that the novice will benefit from the mentor's immediate, specific and in-depth knowledge of curriculum and methodology (Huffman & Leak, 1986).

Physical Proximity

During the course of a normal school day, job demands rarely allow teachers the time or the opportunity to discuss professional concerns with one another. Allen and Pecheone (1989) found the beginners in Connecticut's Induction Program reported little contact with their mentors, and the dilemma was exacerbated when mentors and beginning teachers worked at actual physical distance from one another (different schools). If mentors are to do the work of a mentor, that is, provide specific instructional guidance and emotional support to beginners, then it is necessary that they have frequent contact with each other. In addition to common teaching assignments, close physical proximity (classroom locations) can encourage frequent communication and thus increase the amount of time the mentor and the beginning teacher actually spend together (Enz, 1990; Odell, 1989).

Time for Mentoring

Another practical concern related to quality mentoring is that of the mentor's time. Experienced teachers are often placed on advisory committees for the district in which they work. Mentoring a beginning teacher takes a great deal of time: before, during, and after school hours. When selecting mentors, a district should be cautious of their time and not over-commit them with additional responsibilities.

Creating An Environment for Mentoring

From the school district's point of view, mentoring activities may appear easy to implement. Simply identify new teachers and pair the teacher with a suitable mentor. However, appearances can be deceiving. School administrators cannot assume that a new teacher will receive sufficient support merely by matching them with a mentor. Naming mentors does not guarantee a mentoring program.

Consider, for example, Mary's story and how she joyfully prepared all summer for her second grade bilingual classroom.

She began her first year of teaching with enthusiasm and confidence. Mary had reason to be confident, as she had trained in an extensive field-experience program.

However, none of her training had prepared her for what she encountered when employed as a regular classroom teacher. In her class of 28 students were 10 children who spoke English only, 8 who spoke Spanish only, and 10 who were bilingual. In addition, there were at least 7 vastly different skill levels and to make matters worse, the district did not have the necessary instructional resources/materials for Mary to use. Mary's mentor began a valiant effort to help Mary manage this situation, but to quote this dedicated, experienced mentor, "the system was stacked against her, a mentor alone can't help her solve all of these problems, she needs more than I can possibly give." At the end of the second month of school, Mary was frustrated and overwhelmed. She began to seriously question her ability to teach and her desire to be a teacher waned.

System Stacking

Unfortunately, students had been assigned to Mary's class by a school system that assumed all teachers are equally competent to manage this situation. This classroom would have been a challenge for any teacher, but for a newcomer, one who had few opportunities to develop strategies to deal with this range of student diversity, it became potentially hazardous to both teacher and students.

Regrettably, Mary's story is all too common. The systematic abuse of beginning teachers continues even with all we now know about beginning teacher needs and development. Mary's story clearly illustrates that the induction process is more than the one-to-one, novice/mentor relationship. Simply having a mentor does not guarantee a successful first year experience. Fundamental system factors such as class loads, student assignment, multiple preparations and floating room assignments which are beyond the control of the mentor teacher have a significant impact on a beginner's initial success as a teacher and

must be considered when developing comprehensive mentoring programs (Huling-Austin, 1990).

Collaboration: The Basis for Support

Successful mentoring/induction programs can be described as multi-level collaborative efforts with the most obvious collaboration being the interactions between mentor and novice. Yet to be effective, these relationships must be supported by the larger school community which may include: school board members, district office and building level administrators, faculty, school support staff, state department and university personnel. Forging an alliance between these interrelated yet divergent entities is a challenging task. However, the unique perspectives and expertise of each agency will ultimately contribute to the viability of the mentoring program (Greathouse, Johnston, Enz, Anderson & Noggle, 1990). For more information about collaboration refer to Chapter 6, Collaboration and Mentoring.

This collaborative effort should produce a plan that facilitates the implementation of a comprehensive mentoring program that prevents the type of system stacking Mary faced in her first year. Further, the plan should outline program goals, development and implementation phases of the program and allow for evaluation of program progress at critical junctures. (See Chapter 7 for more information on evaluating mentoring programs.)

Building A Structure for Support

Goals: The Framework for Building Support

Long before mentors are identified, the purpose and goals for the mentoring program should be established, owned, and understood by the total school community. Clearly stated goals serve as a framework that drives all of the subsequent organizational teacher support activities identified in Figure 1 on page 74. When goals are clearly articulated and accepted, they guide

the administration of the mentoring program and the resultant development, implementation and evaluation of the program directly reflect program goals. It is also critical that the goals of mentoring are based on the specific needs and concerns of the beginning teacher, for if we use the metaphor of building a structure for support, then the needs and concerns of beginning teachers should be considered the foundation for all support efforts.

Resources and Delivery Systems

After the goals of the mentoring program have been established, the school community must begin to identify the resources and delivery systems necessary to provide support to the beginning teacher.

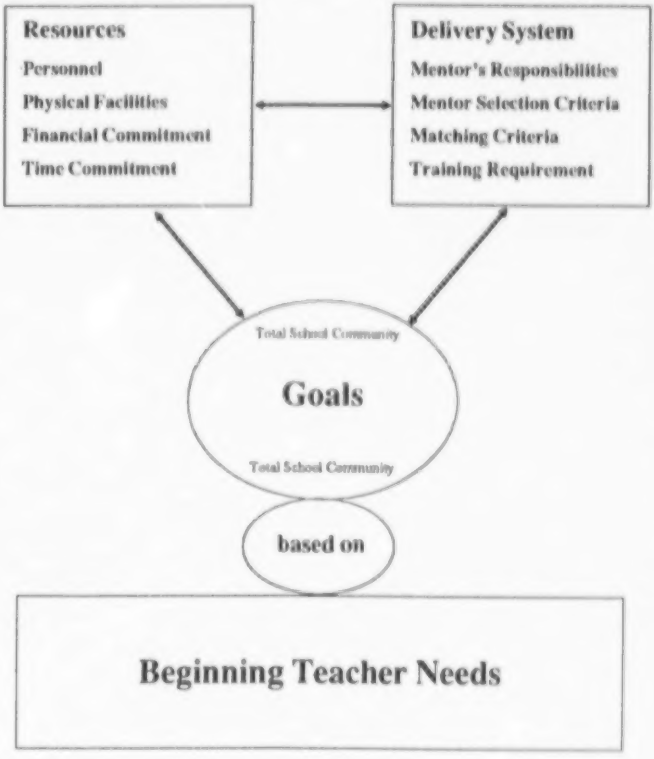
To continue the metaphor of building a mentoring environment, the school community should view the resources of personnel, physical facilities, time and financial commitments. These are the building blocks of support, whereas the delivery system includes mentor's responsibilities, selection and matching criteria and training requirements as the mortar that bonds the mentor-novice relationship. The resources and delivery systems that each school community has available may vary dramatically but used skillfully will still accomplish the district's goals for mentoring (Kay, 1989).

It is important to remember that each school community is unique and the type of instructional concerns and constraints to student learning and effective teaching are factors that will have an impact on the mentoring program.

Summary

To accomplish the noble goals of mentoring it is necessary to view new teacher support from a broader perspective—not just a mentoring relationship but a mentoring environment. It is only through the collaborative involvement of the total school community that mentoring addresses the special needs of the begin-

Figure 1


Resources
Personnel
Physical Facilities
Financial Commitment
Time Commitment
Delivery System
Mentor's Responsibilities
Mentor Selection Criteria
Matching Criteria
Training Requirement
Total School Community
Goals
Total School Community
based on
Beginning Teacher Needs
Professional
System Concerns
Policies & Procedures
Roles & Responsibilities
Community Values
Instructional
Observations & Feedback
Resource & Material
Classroom Organization
Management/Disciplines
Lesson Planning
Personal
Emotional Support
Befriendment
Encouragement

ning teacher, allowing the relationship between novice and mentor to flourish—not merely exist.

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Chapter 6

Collaboration and Mentoring

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Formalized support programs for novice teachers have rushed onto the educational landscape during the past decade. Mentoring, a principle component of many programs, is a key feature of state-mandated initial certification programs (Huling-Austin, 1989b), university-based teacher preparation programs (Huling-Austin, 1989a; Odell, 1986), and local district efforts (Reiman, McNair, McGee, & Hines, 1988; Stoddart, 1989; Thies-Sprinthall 1986). This apparent mutual interest in support for beginning teachers warrants an investigation of the potential for collaboration. In this chapter we examine collaboration in a variety of contexts, offer some general guidelines, and describe examples of how it has revitalized the teaching profession.

Collaboration as a Revitalizing Process

A spate of reform reports has recommended increased collaboration between higher education institutions, state departments of public instruction, and local school districts (Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy, 1986; Holmes Group, 1987; National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983). Collaboration in the mentoring enterprise, with its rich historical tradition (Head & Gray, 1988), could be a source of renewal and revitalization for our profession.

Yet the rhetoric of collaboration has often outpaced the implementation of collaboration. Historically, limited resources, lack of clarity in goals, hasty implementation, and proprietary attitudes have constrained the potential of collaboration (Goodlad, 1988). California's Mentor Teacher Program illustrates the difficulties of moving too quickly into mentoring with too little collaboration. Following passage of the state's omnibus reform bill, California was pressed to implement a mentoring program. Despite its voluntary nature, state funding for professional development was linked to participation in the mentor program. This stipulation minimized involvement by local districts and left districts with little choice but adoption of the state plan. The result was mostly a unilateral implementation of mentoring as defined by state policy-makers with little acknowledgement of individual district's needs (Little, 1990). Bird (1986) concluded in a survey of 291 districts that little was gained and much was lost in the hasty implementation of the mentor program. In light of these difficulties, five perspectives of necessary conditions for collaboration are discussed.

Perspectives on Collaboration

Goodlad's (1988) intensive work with school-university partnerships is illuminating. He submits two fundamental conditions are needed for collaboration to be revitalizing and effective: (1) frequent opportunities to share experiences with other persons in similar roles and (2) opportunities to reflect upon how theory and research can inform practice. Goodlad submits that developing and maintaining a method for ongoing communication between the school district and the university should be given the highest priority if collaboration is to have a chance of succeeding. The conditions outlined by Goodlad are similar to the findings from Hord's (1986) synthesis of research on organizational collaboration. Her findings indicated that frequent communication, shared goals, mutual examination, and contribution of expertise were requisites to effective collaboration.

A national survey of inservice teacher education programs by Yarger, Howey, and Joyce (1979) offers additional elements for

effective collaboration. They found that usual or common service programs were woefully inadequate providing brief, episodic and superficial interventions. As an alternative, they recommended that inservice programs be viewed as an opportunity for school-university partnerships. The programmatic framework for this enterprise should include the following elements:

1. School focused and job-related;

2. Developmental—culminate in supervised application;

3. Guided by the theory of the teacher as an adult learner;

4. Close connection between the training and the job responsibility of the teacher;

5. Provide continuous experience as short term workshops do not produce lasting change;

6. Employ individuals with previous experience in the education of experienced teachers for planning and management.

More recently, the Research in Teacher Education (RITE) program, under the direction of Gary Griffith, laid a framework for collaboration based on intensive studies of clinical teacher education programs. Griffin (1986) defined the critical features of collaborative professional development efforts as follows:

Research in Teacher Education: Critical Features of an Effective Clinical Teacher Education Program	
Defining Property:	The program must be embedded in a school context
Feature #1:	The collaborative effort is context-sensitive.
Feature #2:	The collaborative effort is purposeful and articulated.
Feature #3:	The collaborative effort is participatory.
Feature #4:	The collaborative effort is knowledge-based.
Feature #5:	The collaborative effort is ongoing.
Feature #6:	The collaborative effort is developmental.
Feature #7:	The collaborative effort is analytic and reflective.

The RITE clinical teacher education framework shown above views teachers and central office personnel as partners who possess skills and insights into teaching and learning. Their findings demonstrate the promise in participatory collaborative teacher education programs. But how do experienced teachers gain personally and professionally from collaborative arrangements?

What Are the Benefits?

Studies by Sprinthall and Thies-Sprinthall (1983) have demonstrated that stage growth can be encouraged modestly in adults through planned collaborative teacher education programs. Experienced teachers who are encouraged to assume complex new helping roles grow personally and professionally. A recent study by Reiman (1988) with mentor teachers showed modest personal stage growth when the mentor candidates were exposed to the following: (a) significant role-taking experiences in complex helping tasks (mentoring), (b) careful guided reflection, (c) and the opportunity to engage in both complex new roles with guided reflection over a lengthy period of time (6 months to 1 year).

When persons assume complex new helping roles like mentoring, they become formative as adult learners with greater potential for personal development and revitalization.

Beginning teachers' programs also serve as opportunities for collaborative action research. Mentoring is well suited to action research due to its collaborative and collegial nature, its focus on practical problems (Ebbutt, 1985), its emphasis on personal and professional development (Anning, 1986; Noffke and Zeichner, 1987; Street, 1986), and its shared commitment to frequent and open communication. Oja and Smulyan (1989) used the Action Research on Change in Schools (ARCS) project as a case study for examining the central elements of effective collaborative action research. Their model includes the following:

1. Teachers, staff developers, and/or university faculty join together with the goals of improving practice contributing to educational theory, and providing personal and professional development.

2. Action research is carried out in teams which may or may not be school based.

3. Each team negotiates a group project which addresses its members' concerns and then uses a recursive process of action research in carrying out its project.

4. In most projects, teams publish or present the results of their studies.

5. The projects themselves are documented and analyzed by researchers who look for insights into processes of effective action research.

Clearly, these elements can contribute to professional revitalization if preconditions such as administrative commitment, knowledge, and support are present (Reed & Cedja, 1987). Collaborative action research encourages a shared vision of inquiry in mentoring among teachers. Collaborative visions

(Schlechty and Whitford, 1988) can galvanize the energies of diverse groups. Once educational leaders articulate a succinct shared vision of the profession's future, it compels commitment and support.

The above perspectives clarify the benefits of collaboration. But what goals and visions does mentoring serve in a collaborative effort?

A Mentoring Vision: Who Decides?

One obstacle to the development of a shared vision relates to organization values. Snow (1963) underscored the problem of theory versus practice as a tacit disparity between the scientific and the humanistic cultures. With the growth in the complexity of our society, a third culture has emerged with goals of efficiency, cost-effectiveness, and standardization—state government. The disparity of values among these cultures still exists to some degree between universities, the public schools, and state departments of education when mentoring is discussed.

Universities esteem the scientific. Theory and research tend to be initiated and cultivated with little opportunity to apply those theories. Conversely, local school districts are steeped in practice and are reluctant consumers of theory. When practitioners compliment university-based teacher educators by stating that one is down to earth and not too theoretical, the normative order of public schools is revealed.

Finally, there are currently legislative actions in over 31 states (Huling-Austin, 1989b), seeking to standardize and formalize mentoring and induction. Some critics voice skepticism about policy actions that attempt to convert personal and intense mentoring relationships into formal arrangements (Gehrke, 1988; Little, 1990; Reiman, 1991; Zey, 1984). Yet, the aims of formal mentor programs as identified by all three groups are to ***retain*** and ***induct*** novice teachers, to ***reward*** and ***revitalize*** experienced teachers, and to increase ***professional efficacy***. These aims satisfy the criterion of mutual benefit so critical to

collaborative efforts. They also satisfy a shared vision for professionalizing teaching (i.e., quality preservice education, quality inservice, support and revitalization of experienced teachers) which guarantees that each child will be assured educational excellence and equity in the context of a democratic society. Given the varied perspectives and aims of formal mentor programs, some guidelines for collaboration are offered.

Guidelines for Collaborative Mentoring

1. *Strive for continuity in the collaborative effort.* Participants in the partnership must explore avenues for sustaining the collaborative effort over time. School-university partnerships that both disperse responsibility among a number of stakeholders and link collaborative goals to organizational values bolster their likelihood of continuity.

2. *Encourage opportunities for significant complex new role taking.* The role of mentor or mentor trainer can revitalize experienced teachers when there is the necessary support and guided reflection. Collaborative mentor programs should examine the potentials of mentoring as a source of revitalization for experienced faculty. Such a goal also is compatible with district efforts to link preservice and inservice programs.

3. *Establish and commit to a shared vision.* The broad shared visions of what schools should become can empower collaborative efforts. Such shared visions develop over time and are sustained where teacher and principal involvement, plus teacher and principal leadership (Lieberman, 1985; Vivian, 1985). As was mentioned previously, the aims of mentoring (i.e. retention, quality preservice and inservice, experienced-teacher revitalization, and professional efficacy) are a means of assuring that each child receives educational excellence and equity in the context of a democratic society. This represents a powerful vision.

4. *Link collaboration to current research and theory.* In each of the five perspectives described earlier, research and/or theory play a prominent role. We assert that a dynamic knowledge base,

informed by research and theory, should become a hallmark of collaborative efforts. Attention to the development and dissemination of knowledge about mentoring would contribute significantly to the profession. The collaborative action research model used by Oja and Smulyan (1989) presents one avenue for knowledge generation while engaged in collaboration. Theoretical knowledge deserves special attention in collaborative enterprises. Schutes (1975) submits that without theory, practice wanders between the trivial and the triumphal, never understanding the difference. Recent attention to the research and theory of the adult learner in mentor training programs is but one example of the growing importance of theory.

5. *Establish opportunities for analysis, reflection, and the sharing of ideas.* Not only do such occasions engender trust, they encourage the sharing of authority and the sharing of goal setting, decision-making, strategic planning and critique. Time spent to get acquainted, to discuss shared visions, to affirm individual strengths, and to exchange analyses will contribute to a collaborative effort where the whole is stronger than the parts.

6. *Encourage persons with previous experience in collaboration to join the district-state-university partnership.* Their experience can hasten success. These persons should have skill in spanning the boundaries of different organizations. Research (Hohman, 1985) indicates that these boundary-spanners can affect the collaboration outcomes in significant ways through their influence on policy shapers.

This list of guidelines emerged from a review of the five perspectives on collaboration described earlier as well as current collaborative efforts. Three collaborative programs that incorporate some of these guidelines are now examined.

Three Collaborative Programs

Arizona Teacher Residency Project

The first exemplar is the Arizona Teacher Residency project, funded by the Arizona Department of Education. The Center for Educational Development, the Arizona Department of Education, and Arizona State University have formed an active statewide partnership with over 60 school districts. The universities provide training to support teachers. Unique aspects of this collaboration are its long-term focus, the high degree of shared purpose in developing a knowledge base for beginning teacher assistance, the attention to on-going research and evaluation, and the context-sensitive character of the partnership.

Support teachers utilize an experimental observation instrument to gather information on the degree to which beginning teachers achieve competencies. This data is used as feedback for the university teacher education programs. This collaborative enterprise appears to have much health and vitality, and there is reciprocation in the partnership. The schools gain a support staff for inducting novice teachers and the universities obtain valuable data on teaching and learning.

North Carolina Mentor Teacher Network

The Mentor Teacher Network established between North Carolina State University, seven local school districts, and regional and state department personnel, is yet another example of collaboration at work. Faculty at the university level train an initial cadre of support teachers. This cohort then assumes district responsibilities for training mentor teachers in their respective school districts. Unique to this effort is the implementation of a reflective practicum during the training of mentors, the use of a substantial body of research and theory from a cognitive-developmental perspective, and the creation of new role-taking opportunities for experienced teachers. State department personnel, local school districts, and the university have committed themselves to a shared vision of assisting teacher mentor trainers,

mentors, and beginning teachers to grow and develop personally as well as professionally.

The mentor training curriculum applies cognitive-developmental theory to mentoring to promote more empathic, principled, and thoughtful teachers. The year-long training includes one semester of theory, demonstration, and practice and a second semester that serves as a reflective coaching practicum during which mentor trainees work with a beginning teacher (inservice) or student teacher (preservice). This collaborative effort includes twice-yearly meetings in which participants discuss issues, research, curriculum, and evaluation. To date, three phases have emerged in this eight-year collaborative enterprise. Each phase represents a shift in constituent concerns.

(1) *Phase I* represents the initial commitment of personnel, materials, and resources. Of particular importance is the local education agency's willingness to commit to the new theoretical model of mentoring. Two experienced teachers are identified who participate in the long-term mentor training as preparation for the significant and complex new role of mentor teacher trainer. At this phase, concerns focus on ***roles, expectations, responsibilities, and reciprocity in the exchange of resources.***

(2) *Phase II* is the initiation of the two-semester program for prospective mentor trainers. The courses are conducted at the university. The total amount of time involved in the spring seminar and fall reflective practicum is 23 weeks (90 hours of classroom contact). Concurrently, district personnel and higher education faculty discuss and develop selection and recruitment policies, and identify funding sources for the program. Concerns are with ***planning and management*** at this phase.

(3) *Phase III* shifts the instruction to local school districts. A dyad of mentor teacher trainers offers the same two-semester program for prospective mentors and/or supervisors. Certificate renewal and state certification as a mentor are provided. As the coursework moves from the university to the district, the university's role shifts from organizing and teaching to ***network-***

ing. District focus shifts to ***delivery, ongoing support, and evaluation of outcomes***.

New York Beginning Teacher Program

The New York Program includes local school district personnel, the state education department, and an active teacher association in collaborative planning. In some cases higher education has also been involved in the process. The program was established by the state legislature in 1986, encouraging each school district to develop a plan for inducting beginning teachers into the profession. Competitive grants are developed by local school districts, in some cases with assistance from higher education institutions. All districts are to have a beginning teacher program in place by 1993.

Unique to this collaborative effort is the integral role of the professional teacher associations. The state department of education included requirements in district mentor program development applications that (a) mentor selection committees in each district must be composed of 51% teacher association members and (b) representatives from the teacher association must approve the local district proposal before it can be sent to compete for state grant funds. In 1990-91, 97 proposals received funding for a total of $14,500,000. These proposals represented approximately 10 percent of the total number of districts in New York State.

Smaller rural districts have struggled in competitions for state grants. As a result, several rural districts have formed consortiums with nearby districts and higher education institutions to maximize limited resources and funds. In contrast, urban districts have relied less on higher education agencies for support and strategic planning.

As these case studies demonstrate, collaboration is helpful in diverse ways. It assists districts with the training of mentors, improves the quality of preservice and inservice programs, en-

courages better program planning and evaluation, and can revitalize and professionalize the teaching profession.

Summary

This chapter explored mutual interest by school districts, state departments of education, and universities in developing quality mentoring programs. Sharing experiences, examining current research and theory, assuming complex new helping roles (i.e. mentor or mentor trainer), and establishing a shared vision can galvanize and renew the teaching profession. We think it is time for collaboration to become a dynamic force in improving the quality of learning for new teachers and for their students.

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Chapter 7

Evaluating Mentoring Programs

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Program evaluation is a data collection process that provides information which is useful in making decisions about the merit and worth of a program. As stated in the principles of mentoring (page 4), the ATE Commission on the Role and Preparation of Mentor Teachers takes it as axiomatic that program evaluation should be an integral component of mentoring programs. As applied to mentoring programs, merit is derived from the degree to which beginning and mentor teachers intrinsically value the processes of mentoring. The worth of mentoring programs is derived more extrinsically from the growth of beginning teachers and their retention in the profession.

It seems obvious that in developing mentoring programs, provisions and resources need to be specifically dedicated from the outset to an ongoing evaluation process. What may be less obvious and axiomatic, however, is the articulation of what specifically should be evaluated in a mentoring program, and how that evaluation should be accomplished (Kay, 1989).

Purposes of Mentoring Program Evaluation.

The specifics of what to evaluate and how to evaluate mentoring programs depend importantly upon the purposes of the evaluation. Galluzzo and Craig (1990) specify four purposes for conducting evaluation studies in teacher education programs that may be applied to mentoring programs: accountability, improvement, understanding and knowledge.

When the purpose of an evaluation is accountability, the intention is to establish the worth of a mentoring program for the edification of authorities external to the program. For example, a large number of current mentoring programs have been man-

dated by school boards, state departments of education, or by state legislatures. These authorities may wish to be shown that mentoring directly enhances the performance of beginning teachers or improves the student learning in beginning teachers' classrooms. Another example of mentor teacher program evaluation conducted to demonstrate accountability would be a report made to a school system on the retention of mentored teachers.

Accountability evaluations contribute little to the other purposes for evaluation, all of which share the over-arching goal of enhancing mentoring programs. An evaluation conducted to improve a mentoring program apprises program participants of the strengths and weaknesses of the program so that informed decisions for changing the program can be made. For example, if an evaluation reveals a discrepancy between the support needed by beginning teachers and the support being offered by mentor teachers, programmatic changes could be made in order to reduce this discrepancy. As another example, program improvement evaluation may suggest better methods of training mentor teachers or may identify relevant dimensions for promoting mutual regard between mentors and proteges.

The understanding and knowledge purposes for conducting an evaluation of mentoring programs are to promote understanding of the teacher mentoring process and to contribute to our knowledge about mentoring. Some specific objectives here are: (a) to gain insight into the experiences of the protege and mentor teachers, (b) to inquire into the practice of mentoring, (c) to facilitate communication among all program participants, (d) to challenge conventional wisdom about issues and practices in mentoring, and (e) to transmit knowledge to others interested in mentor teacher programs.

These program evaluation purposes of understanding and knowledge appear at first to be quite abstract although they encompass the more concrete accountability and improvement purposes. What they serve to do is to push mentor program evaluation research beyond the confines of outcome evaluations and one-shot follow-up interview studies. Indeed, they encourage evaluators to study the comprehensive behaviors, attitudes

and concerns of program participants, to use the program participants as informants regarding the processes and contexts that underlie the program, and further expand our evaluation methodologies to include inquiry methods, artifact analyses, and attitudinal essays.

What to Evaluate in Mentoring Programs.

Almost any aspect of a mentoring program potentially could be evaluated depending upon the purposes of the evaluation. Indeed, evaluation of mentoring programs might well entail such varied activities as calculating yearly attrition rates of program proteges, measuring changes in the stages of teacher development, or recording verbatim questions asked of mentors by proteges (Odell, 1990b).

The critical assumption that guides what to evaluate in mentoring programs is that mentoring program evaluations should be limited to the domain circumscribed by the stated goals of mentoring programs. While the specific goals of individual mentoring programs may vary somewhat, the generally agreed to common goal of mentoring programs is to provide beginning teachers with mentoring support that will reduce their concerns and enhance their development as long-term competent instructional leaders in the classroom (Odell, 1989; Huling-Austin, 1990). The disaggregation of this broad goal suggests, at the least, that we should assess the qualitative and quantitative nature of the support offered by mentoring programs to beginning teachers. We should further determine how the concerns of beginning teachers are altered by the program, and how beginning teachers' competencies as instructional leaders are changed as a result of their mentoring experiences and their teaching context. Additionally, it would be appropriate to assess how long-term the tenures of the beginning teachers actually are, i.e. for how long they are retained as classroom teachers.

It is useful at this juncture to further illuminate the common goal of mentoring programs by reference to some distinctions made by Medley (1982) among the concepts of teacher compe-

tence, teacher performance, and teacher effectiveness (see also Andrews & Barnes, 1990). Basically, teacher competence is comprised of the teacher's knowledge, skills and values. Teacher performance is the actual behavior of the teacher in the classroom. Teacher effectiveness is the teacher's impact on student progress or achievement.

Inasmuch as the goal of teacher mentoring programs is stated in terms of enhancing teacher competence, and not in terms of teacher effectiveness, it is invalid under our critical guiding assumption to evaluate a teacher mentoring program by using measures of student progress such as changes on test scores. While there is no gainsaying that the improvement of student learning is an important goal of education, it is not what should be evaluated directly if the intent is to capture the essence of mentoring programs.

It can be argued as well that using technical teacher performance criteria in order to evaluate mentoring programs is antithetical to the concept of mentoring and to the goal of teacher mentoring programs. This is the most obvious when teacher performance assessments are used to determine beginning teachers' certification, assignments to career ladders, or merit pay. Again, this is not to deny the obvious utility of assessing teaching, but it is to suggest that mentor programs are more appropriately evaluated in terms of the development of teacher competence among beginning teachers.

To summarize what to evaluate in mentoring programs, we can again refer to the purposes of evaluation. For the purpose of accountability, we could evaluate whether as a result of receiving mentoring support beginning teachers are more knowledgeable about instructional strategies, whether their concerns are more pedagogical than personal, whether they are reflective about their own teaching, and whether they have adopted the values of the teaching profession. In terms of improvements to the program, we could evaluate the effectiveness of the support offered, whether the mentoring offered was sufficiently comprehensive, and whether the training and coaching offered were appropriate to the needs of the beginning teachers. In terms of understanding

and knowledge, we could evaluate whether new insights as to the dynamic processes of mentoring teachers have emerged and whether we have adequately communicated these emergent insights through presentations and publications so as to increase the profession's knowledge base about mentoring.

How to Evaluate Mentoring Programs

This is not the proper venue to discuss the mechanics and methodologies of evaluating mentor programs. It is appropriate, however, to acknowledge that the specification of how an evaluation should be carried out is relatively more difficult to answer, primarily because the concepts being assessed are so complex. Certainly, no one-shot, brief inquiry made by means of a questionnaire or interview at the end of the first year of teaching will be sufficient to provide a complete evaluation of a mentoring program. At the least, the evaluation process needs to include an ongoing formative component (Galluzzo & Craig, 1990).

A formative evaluation provides contemporary information about the teacher mentoring process and permits one to revise and redirect the ongoing program as necessary in order to achieve programmatic goals. A formative evaluation is most supportive of the program improvement and understanding purposes of mentoring program evaluation and it provides a measure to determine the merits of the program. In contrast, a summative evaluation is product oriented and is necessarily retrospective. It supports the accountability purpose of evaluations; it provides a measure of the worth of what was done previously.

While it is appropriate to include both summative and formative perspectives in a mentoring program evaluation, there is an essential caveat to remember in this context. Specifically, when performing summative evaluations, the accountability evaluation agent and the mentoring agent should not be the same person (Stiggins, 1986). Any perception on the part of program proteges that the support being offered by a mentor teacher is contaminated by a summative evaluation by that mentor tends both to

compromise the support offered and to invalidate the assessments made (Odell, 1987).

While this dual role problem is mitigated somewhat in a formative evaluation, it is still important to be mindful that no interpersonal interaction is value free. Therefore, the potential for role conflict always exists when the mentor offering support has any evaluation role, including a formative one. Two suggestions follow from this. One is that summative evaluations should always be done by extra-mentor program personnel. Another is that proteges should be taught to be reflective and self analytic so that they engage in a continuous formative self-evaluation of their competence.

Another worthwhile approach to evaluating mentoring programs is to use converging operations. The essence of this approach is to use multiple sources of information, obtained across multiple settings and using multiple procedures, in assessing a specific mentoring program goal. The objective is to extract reliable points of agreement about the mentoring program from the points at which the multiple lines of evidence converge. Once again, it follows that the evaluation of mentoring programs will have to move beyond a singular reliance on the follow-up study as characterized by one-shot mailed surveys and incorporate a variety of assessment strategies and contexts in order to obtain an optimal evaluation process.

In concluding about the best approach to evaluating teacher education programs, Galluzzo and Craig (1990) suggest a scenario where program evaluation becomes a collection of small, loosely coupled studies that focus on the natural processes of the program. The studies are designed to gain understanding and knowledge about the contexts, inputs, processes, and outcomes of the program. Such a scenario applied to mentor teacher programs would surely serve to enhance the teacher mentoring process.

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Chapter 8

Designing Training and Selecting Incentives for Mentor Programs

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The need, potential and positive impact of mentoring programs during the beginning phase of a teaching career are well documented (Fuller, 1969; Veenman, 1984; Odell, 1986; and Huling-Austin, 1989). However, without a cadre of experienced teachers who possess both the personal and professional skills utilized when mentoring and a genuine desire to serve as a mentor to a neophyte, the programs will achieve only a portion of their potential. Even though one teacher may desire to mentor another, unless an attractive reward system is in place a teacher may not choose to mentor. Therefore, recruiting teachers who desire to mentor through a reward system based on meaningful incentives and preparing teachers for the complexities of mentoring should be basic principles undergirding any mentoring program.

Designing Training Programs

Mentoring within the school context implies that one or more teachers are cast in the mentor's role while another teacher plays the protege's role. If this statement gives rise to theatrical images of a casting director assigning parts in a play, it may be because all too frequently mentors are simply "named" rather than being trained for the complex process and functions involved. Experienced and beginning teachers alike can be unwitting participants in a "Cinderella Syndrome," whereby the godmother-mentor waves a wand to sprinkle the magic of experience and survival over the protege.

In most cases, serving as a mentor to a beginning teacher means that an experienced classroom teacher takes on additional

responsibilities beyond those related to instruction. There are numerous necessary instructional skills utilized by effective teachers (e.g., managing the classroom, delivering instruction, evaluating student progress, reflecting on the act of teaching, etc.) (Berliner, 1985; Cruickshank, 1985; Hunt, 1974). These and other such abilities are important components of mentoring and should not be denied. However, these skills alone are insufficient for successfully carrying out the functions of mentoring. As mentioned in previous chapters of this monograph, mentoring requires attributes in the personal and psychological domains, as well as in the professional domain. Consequently, training programs for mentors should be multifaceted and go well beyond the focal points of traditional teacher education and staff development programs that focus on the acquisition of and analysis of teaching skills (Howey, 1983; Anderson, 1987).

No specific list of components to include in a mentor training program can be cited as the best or ultimate one. This is due, in part, to the necessary relationship between mentor training and the goals of the state or school district mentoring program (see Chapter 5). However, mentor programs typically define the mentor's role as one dedicated to meeting the needs of the beginning teacher (Veenman, 1984; Odell, 1989; Little, 1990). Therefore, by extrapolation, assisting beginning teachers to improve their teaching performance should become an integral element of mentor training (Huling-Austin, 1989). Further, since personal and psychological skills are also a part of mentoring, training should be designed to enhance the mentor's self-reliance.

To achieve these goals, the following components should be examined in conjunction with the specific purposes of the mentoring program and considered for inclusion in the training.

- Adult Development

This area of mentor training should consider the information and research on adults as learners, the different stages of adult cognitive and emotional development, and the career cycle through which teachers pass.

- Interpersonal Skills

Enhancing the verbal communication and active listening skills, developing problem solving and decision making strategies, and conflict resolution should be elements of this facet of mentor training.

- Coaching and Modeling

Since assisting the beginning teacher in developing effective teaching strategies is a primary goal of mentoring programs, providing information to mentors about sharing their own teaching expertise through coaching and modeling should be a part of their preparation.

- Non-evaluative Styles of Supervision

As guides and support persons to their proteges, mentors must be able to employ techniques which do not involve evaluation, such as observation, conferencing, and instructional analysis.

- Needs of Beginning Teachers

Alerting mentors to the needs of beginning teachers as identified by research (e.g., classroom discipline, motivation, assessment, individual differences, etc.) (Veenman, 1984) is a critical element in their preparation.

- Mentoring Process

In this facet of mentor training, the purposes and goals of a district's mentoring program, the responsibilities of a mentor, and information on the complexities of mentoring should be made known.

Since mentor training falls under the umbrella of staff development services, the salient features of effective staff development need to be considered in the design process. Showers, Joyce, and Bennett's (1987) examination of research on staff development indicates that the location of training and the role

of the trainer are not critical variables. Rather, they maintain that "what does matter is the training design" (p. 79). Three essential conditions for professional growth that can be applied to the design of mentor training have been examined by Wildman and Niles (1987). These conditions are: (a) autonomy, (b) collaboration, and (c) time.

Training programs which allow mentors the opportunity to direct their own learning fulfill the need for *autonomy*. However, this freedom is dependent upon access to an abundant supply of information about mentoring skills and beginning teacher needs. In addition, mentors in training should be given opportunities to collaborate with other mentors. Mentoring is related to fulfilling a role with little concrete definition and must be adjusted to constantly shifting needs of the protege. This stress creates a need for emotional support and encouragement from other colleagues in mentor roles. Expanded intellectual interactions within a teacher's professional context are also essential. Mentoring the mentors through collegial support groups (Johnson & Johnson, 1987; Paquette, 1987) is the essence of *collaboration.*

Time is perhaps the condition of professional growth that is the most difficult to attain in any staff development endeavor. However, time is required for mentors to practice and internalize their new roles (George, 1986). Since mentoring involves a long-term relationship between the mentor and the protege (Gehrke, 1988), the design of mentor training should make allowances for both practice time and continuing support for the duration of the relationship. The importance of mentor training, designed with follow-up activities occurring over a considerable amount of time, cannot be stressed enough (Thies-Sprinthall, 1986).

Selecting Incentives

It was clearly pointed out in an earlier chapter that selecting highly competent individuals to serve a mentors is essential if beginning teachers are to benefit from the assistance offered

through mentoring programs. If the "Cinderella Syndrome" is to be avoided and the mentors are to be chosen from a pool of qualified, willing volunteers rather than being appointed, then recruiting such individuals is a prerequisite to a selection process. Therefore, offering incentives and rewards that appeal to experienced teachers must be examined.

The incentives and rewards associated with mentoring send a powerful message about the value accorded to the role. Since the existing knowledge base on incentives is derived from studies dealing with organizational job satisfaction and morale (Azumi & Lerman, 1987), extrapolation is necessary to determine appropriate incentives for teacher mentor programs.

Lortie (1975) provided a framework for considering incentives for mentors. He outlined extrinsic, intrinsic (psychic), and ancillary as three types of rewards. He maintained that the "cultural and structural aspects of the occupation influence teachers to emphasize psychic rewards" (p. 101). The value of rewards of this type is determined subjectively by each individual. Korinek (1989) comments on the likelihood that teacher preferences for rewards change at different development stages and are affected by "personal circumstances, experience, student population, and educational background" (p. 50).

The results of studies which examined ways to motivate and reward cooperating teachers can provide some insight into the types of incentives that attract mentors. Whaley and Wolfe (1984) recommend offering a choice of tangible incentives and granting meaningful rights, recognition, and responsibilities. Others have commented that money alone, although a prime incentive, may not be sufficient (Duttweiler, 1986; Johnson, 1986). Thus, when considering which incentives to provide to mentors, a wide range of choices should be offered.

A list, albeit incomplete, of possible incentives and rewards could include the following tangible and intangible benefits.

- Release Time

Providing mentors with some discretionary time during official working hours allows them to observe and meet with their proteges without detracting from regular instructional duties.

- Financial Compensation

Increased payment, whether through an additional stipend, elevated status on a career ladder, or funds for classroom or professional materials, can be a major incentive for mentors.

- Professional Development Opportunities

This category includes benefits such as tuition vouchers, funding for travel, summer institutes, and workshops which are perceived to enhance professional effectiveness.

- Public Recognition

Meaningful recognition through titles, adjunct faculty status in higher education, and opportunities to participate in other aspects of teacher education can be offered as tangible incentives to mentors.

In summary, it cannot be overemphasized that mentors require specialized training and incentives for their work. Incentives should be offered to them for the time, effort, and caring that are expended while fulfilling a mentor's role. If mentoring programs are to achieve the goal of assisting beginning teachers, then mentors should be prepared for their complex roles and functions of mentoring through a well-designed, multi-faceted, and on-going training program. These principles should be of primary concern if the dangers of the "Cinderella Syndrome" are to be avoided.

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Chapter 9

Mentoring in Teacher Education: Diversifying Support for Teachers

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Within the realm of teacher education at both the preservice level and inservice level, teachers can expect new learning experiences. The possibility of predicting these experiences is unreal, but the possibility of having mentors available to assist when new experiences do occur is real. Using mentors to support the professional growth of teachers offers them an opportunity to learn from their colleagues.

The findings from a national sample of 1,007 beginning teachers (The Metropolitan Life Survey of the American Teacher, 1991) showed that new teachers do favor the opportunity to receive help from skilled teachers. When asked what would have been most helpful in preparing them to become more effective as first-year teachers, 46% responded that an experienced teacher who was assigned to advise and assist them would have been most helpful. They recognize the value of a mentor contributing to their preparedness and effectiveness.

Throughout their career, teachers will need and/or welcome guidance from other teachers. Such guidance can start in the preliminary phase of planning to become a teacher through to the phase of achieving master teacher status. As teachers grow professionally, they are sometimes fortunate to have the support of more than one mentor. However, every mentorship will not be the same because mentoring is a formal and an informal practice of differentiated goals and activities (Fagan & Walter, 1982). It's the process of professional advisement between a support teacher (the mentor) and a supported teacher (the mentee). This process usually results in the pairing of two people with differences in background, abilities and talents.

Furthermore, mentoring is the practice of collegial collaboration between an experienced and an inexperienced person. Such practice is endorsed favorably by other authors in this publication. Their work substantiates the need and importance of mentorships. They view it (except for Chapter 4) within the context of teachers assisting beginning teachers according to the principles of mentoring adopted by the Commission (see page 4). Yet in this final chapter, the author views mentoring from the perspective of strengthening all aspects of teacher education. An emphasis is placed on diversifying and broadening mentoring activities to serve teachers during the life of their career. Expanding mentoring to support experiences associated with the preservice and inservice aspects of teacher education is the focus of this chapter.

Mentoring in Teacher Education

The preparation and growth of teachers occurs in teacher education through various means. It happens when mentors: (1) encourage high school students to become interested in the teaching profession, (2) offer assistance to intern teachers, (3) help beginning teachers be successful during the first few years of teaching, or (4) motivate tenured teachers to renew teaching skills. Such occurrences exemplify the reality of mentoring and make it meaningful to the development of teachers.

Using mentors to support teachers differs among colleges and schools. Therefore, their goals to recruit, develop and retain teachers are varied. In having experienced teachers assist other teachers, they satisfy state and/or local objectives set for mentor programs. The mentors may or may not be involved in matters that govern the programs, but they are expected to be loyal and committed in their assistance to others (Bird, 1986). Their commitment to help others is a significant quality. It's important because there are many dimensions to mentoring in teacher education. Several of them are described in the following sections on the team approach, internship, induction and teacher improvement.

Team Approach

The mentoring team approach can be an efficient preparatory element in undergraduate teacher education. Despite the name, this formalized approach is a triadic link among the university supervisor, the cooperating teacher (mentor) and the student teacher. It has become a dynamic and positive thrust that allows the mentor teacher and the university professor to work closely together as a collegial team, to ensure collaborative responsibility in preparing the student teacher.

Advocates of the team approach, Benner and Cagle (1987), conclude that it improves teacher education and provides more knowledge about the competency of student teachers. Also, when student teachers are trained to elicit mentoring behaviors from the cooperating teacher, they are apt to learn effective teaching procedures (Stahlhut, Hawkes, Fratianni, and Doerzman, 1987). It is evident that training in mentoring skills can benefit student teachers as well as members of the mentoring team.

Internship

During a year-long internship, mentors may assist intern teachers who enter the profession without college-based preparation or formal teaching experience. The mentors' goals are to advise the interns and improve their instructional effectiveness. Such goals are achievable, according to the research of Guerrero and Schoener (1988) and Bey's (1991) study of a school-based internship program. These studies found that interns learn from formal teaching experiences, should the internship provide them with mentors who establish supportive, non-evaluative, and collegial relationships.

In conducting the participatory tasks of an internship, mentors might be expected to provide interns with more than instructional assistance. They may prepare interns to master the teaching competencies required for state certification. This responsibility is useful in situations where several mentors or instructional

supervisors are available to observe, advise, and guide the interns (James, 1987).

For example, in the nine-month Lyndhurst Program in Tennessee three individuals are assigned to be mentors to each intern. They include a classroom practitioner, a pedagogical specialist, and an arts and sciences specialist. The two specialists are College of Education faculty members who volunteer to serve as mentors; the practitioner is a teacher in the same content area and school as the intern. Thus, the role of these mentors is to help the intern obtain certification. (Etheridge, 1987)

Teacher Induction

Having mentors available to support beginning teachers right out of college helps them cope with mistakes, burnout, and job dissatisfaction. In addition, findings from experimental research indicate that induction for new teachers increases retention and serves to ameliorate first-year difficulties (Brown & Wambach, 1987). Other findings suggest that induction programs strengthen the professional well-being of beginning teachers, recognize the importance of a support teacher's role, and transmits the school's culture to beginning teachers (Huling-Austin, 1988).

Colleges and schools can help beginning teachers bridge the gap between preservice and inservice teaching by offering entry-year induction activities (Thies-Sprinthall, 1986). For instance, they may offer jointly sponsored staff development or a toll-free number for counseling. In addition, they may have the entry-year support committee include a university consultant, a school administrator, and a mentor teacher (Hegler & Dudley, 1987; Friske & Combs, 1986; Burke & Schmidt, 1984).

Presently, there are attempts to close the gap between the preservice and inservice preparation of teachers. It's being accomplished through teacher induction programs that: (1) nurture the theories and practices introduced in preservice education, (2) foster the understanding that professional development is a

continuing and reflective practice, and (3) organize partnerships with school districts served by the university (McEvoy & Morehead, 1987). Induction programs are beneficial, especially if colleges assign beginning teachers to mentoring teams and/or provide graduate courses for the induction year (Varah, 1985).

Teacher Improvement

Mentoring is a method of teacher improvement and serves as a means of motivating veteran teachers (Benoit & Braun, 1989). One way for it to motivate and enhance the effectiveness of tenured teachers is to have university faculty members serve as mentors. It's similar to the arrangement between schools and universities in Houston, Texas, where five institutions sponsored a mentoring project for secondary teachers.

The universities organized a consortium for a one year mentoring project, and teachers worked in pairs with mathematicians and scientists. When citing the educational merits of this project, Miller, Thomson and Roush (1989) referred to: (1) the respect that mentors gained for classroom teachers, (2) the ability of teachers and mentors to infuse new content into the mathematic and science curriculum, and (3) the increase in interaction among teachers and mentors about up-to-date equipment, techniques, and materials.

In this project, career-committed teachers formed collegial relationships and cultivated their effectiveness. They restored a sense of worth and revitalized their work performance. The university faculty also benefitted as mentors in the quest to help high school teachers. Their assistance was a cooperative endeavor and it called for them to be the guardians of excellence in teaching.

Diversifying Support for Teachers

School and college partnerships now exist in the form of mentoring teams, internships, entry-year induction, and teacher improvement efforts. They signify a need to diversify support

for teachers, starting at their level of competency. By expanding collaboration, educators may become more innovative in planning mentoring programs and use the knowledge bases for adult learning, motivation, and career development (Bey, 1990; Clemson, 1987). Surely, programs with differentiated levels of support and goals will diversify mentoring practices to support teachers. (See Figure 1). Along with the diversification may come different purposes for mentoring; here are some examples:

- **Prospective Teachers** are urged to think about teaching as a career choice.
- **Student Teachers** are taught to transfer educational theories to the real world of teaching.
- **Intern Teachers** are guided through the beginning phases of teaching as an on-the-job trainee.
- **Beginning Teachers** are assisted in developing and strengthening teaching skills.
- **Career Teachers** are encouraged to renew and expand existing teaching skills.
- **Master Teachers** are advised to share exemplary abilities and contribute to teacher research.

The various practices to support teachers, as outlined in Figure 1, provide several contextual and functional characteristics for mentoring. It's obvious that a complete analysis of mentoring practices will require further study. One that investigates mentoring programs for high school students, student teachers, intern teachers, beginning teachers, and career teachers.

Formalized mentoring is a new phenomenon in teacher education, causing educators to explore the use of different support practices (Little, 1990). To accentuate this newness, a national model for preservice and inservice mentorships is somewhat premature. However, the literature does cite an assortment of

Figure 1

Mentoring Practices Recommended to Support Teachers

Classification of Mentees	Recommended Practices of Support Provided by Mentors	Actions for Implementing Practices
Prospective Teachers	Provide pre-career counseling and information for individuals who have an interest in the teaching profession.	Recruitment
Student Teachers	Supervise and guide teacher candidates in making the tran ition between theory and practice.	Pre-Certification Preparation
Intern Teachers	Advise new initiates about the fundamental teaching practices and skills needed to be successful in the classroom.	Apprenticeship
Beginning Teachers	Consult and assist beginning teachers with their personal and professional concerns, needs, and challenges.	Developmental Growth
Career Teachers	Encourage career-committed teachers to analyze and refine existing teaching practices, as well as incorporate new teaching practices.	Expansionary Growth
Master Teachers	Aid efforts to help exemplary teachers promote the technical knowledge and research on teaching and student learning.	Meritorious Advancement

local program limitations and goals concerning the responsibilities of mentors (Anderson & Shannon, 1988).

Information and research on the diverse practices of mentoring will naturally continue to increase. Future projects in teacher preparation, development and support can also push mentoring to a new edge. Hopefully, fresh ideas combined with the principles of mentoring (see page 4) will help to guide and/or establish a compendium for mentoring in teacher education.

Conclusion

Overall, this chapter emphasizes activities and programs designed to promote mentorships in teacher education. It recognizes mentoring as an important process in an effort to enlist teacher collaboration at the preservice and inservice levels. Specifically, it points to opportunities to diversify practices that enable teachers to have mentors in all stages of their career.

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